AN

EPITOME

OF THE

HISTORY OF EUROPE,

FROM

THE REIGN OF CHARLEMAGNE,

TO THE

BEGINNING OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

BY SIR WILLIAM O'DOGHERTY.

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MDCCLXXXVIII.

TO HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS

GEORGE, PRINCE OF WALES,

THIS HISTORY

IS MOST HUMBLY INSCRIBED,

BY HIS MOST OBEDIENT,

AND MOST DEVOTED

HUMBLE SERVANT,

WILLIAM O'DOGHERTY.

PREFACE.

THE hiſtories of the commencement of moſt nations are ſo much involved in obſcurity, and ſo intermixed with fable, that very little certainty can be derived from them. It is only from ſuch æras, from whence public records and certain dates come before us, that we can be ſure of facts, and form in our minds uſeful concluſions. The great change in the face of Europe that happened at the time of Charlemagne, and the authenticity of hiſtory ſince that period, naturally points it out as the epocha at which we may begin our hiſtorical reſearches, and gain that general knowledge of events, that may be

equally uſeful and entertaining. It is from that time alone that we can be ſaid to walk on ſure ground; that truth is developed from fiction, and that the hiſtorian can tread in a path different from that of poetry or oratory.

It is certain that, in the hiſtory of every european nation, prejudices have frequently obtruded, that have blinded candour, and been inimical to truth; yet by reading the different accounts of divers hiſtorians, we may be enabled to eſtabliſh facts, by comparing the ſeveral relations, and making the neceſſary allowances for the ſeveral views and intereſts of the relators.

To wade through the immenſe number of volumes that treat of modern hiſtory, either in general or in particular, requires more time and expence than the generality of mankind are either able or willing to beſtow; hence judicious abridgments have been well received by all who would gladly have a competent idea of the hiſtory of Europe, without deſcending to ſuch details as may indeed be acceptable to the

ſubjects

ſubjects of a particular ſtate, when treating of that nation, but would be burthenſome to thoſe who have no peculiar intereſt in the minute circumſtances.

Many have been the abridgments of french, german, ſpaniſh, italian, and britiſh hiſtory; and ſome of them have been deemed highly uſeful, and very ſatisfactory; but we have not a compendium of the general hiſtory of Europe, for ſo long a period, as from the year 778, to nearly the preſent time, in any portable form; hence the author of the following epitome hopes it may not be unacceptable to the public.

This work pretends to be little more than a chronological ſeries of facts; begun at firſt from no other motive than to ſerve as a help to the author's own memory. Being particularly fond of hiſtory, he employed almoſt every leiſure hour in reading the beſt and moſt authentic hiſtorians. In this purſuit, every memorable occurrence was noted down; the preciſe date of the event carefully aſcertained; and, having no

particular bias on his mind, he coolly compared contradictory narratives, and marked thoſe as true, which had the greateſt weight of evidence in its favour. By ſlow and imperceptible degrees the work grew to its preſent ſize; when the conſideration that nothing of the kind hath been yet publiſhed, and the hopes that *his* labour might ſpare that of *others*, determined him to ſend it into the world.

The author is well aware, that many may object to this mode of ſtudying hiſtory, and ſay it is uſeleſs, as it only tends to charge the memory with a number of dates, and the names of perſons and events. That the real uſe of hiſtory does not conſiſt in knowing what has been done, without penetrating into the cauſes of actions: for the true knowledge of hiſtory is the knowledge of mankind; and, to ſtudy hiſtory properly, we muſt ſtudy the motives, opinions, and paſſions of men, and learn all the ſecret ſprings, turnings, and folds of the human heart.

All

All this is very ſpecious; it carries with it a ſplendid ſhew, and may make the author who purſues this courſe, appear as an able ſcrutinizer into human nature. But are the reaſons alleged by authors for certain actions, always the true motives that urged theſe actions? Surely no. Manifeſtos of princes frequently hold out falſe lights; and if the height of policy conſiſts in concealment, how can an hiſtorian, at the diſtance of ſeveral centuries, (nay, even when only a few years have elapſed,) have the great ſagacity to penetrate into the hidden receſſes of the mind, unravel the mazes of a cabinet, or diſcriminate chance from deſign? To ſay that we can, is paying too great a compliment to human faculties; and all we can learn from thoſe who decide in the moſt peremptory manner, is the opinion of the hiſtorian, which may or may not be well founded. Let us illuſtrate this argument by example.

It is well known by all readers of the french hiſtorians, that when Henry IV. was ſo ſtrongly oppoſed by the *league*, the emperor

peror of the turks (Amurath III.) offered to ſend him ſuccours. Different hiſtorians have not failed to inveſtigate the grand ſeignior's motives for that offer. One of them attributes it to the ancient alliance of France with the ottoman empire. Another writer ſays, it ſprung from the hatred the turks entertained to the ſpaniards, eſpecially at a time when the battle of Lepanto was freſh in their minds: whilſt a third author very gravely accounts for the fact from a principal of religion: "for," ſays he, "Henry was at that time an hugonot, "which in ſome ſort rendered him an ene-"my to the pope, who was much hated by "the turks." Indeed the ambaſſador who brought the offer, gives the affair another turn; and ſays, it was becauſe the grand ſeignior hated the word *league*.

How far, we may aſk, is the mind enlightened by the penetration of theſe authors? If we adopt the ſentiments of one, then thoſe of the others muſt be declared erroneous. And may not the author who ſimply relates the fact, and leaves the conſideration

ſideration of the motive to the inveſtigation and ſagacity of his readers, deſerve the character of an hiſtorian, as well as he who obtrudes his own opinion, and would have poſterity give it an implicit faith?

This obſervation is not made to decry the uſe of the larger hiſtories, or to leſſen their merit. It muſt be confeſſed, that they deſerve to be particularly ſtudied by all who have leiſure, and are deſirous to become perfect hiſtorians. All that is intended by it, is to ſhew, that abridgments are not without their uſe; that they are better adapted to the generality of readers; and, that a knowledge of facts may be agreeable, without any pretended diſquiſitions into the reaſons that produced them. A compendium may be conſidered to hiſtory at large, as a map is to the extent of geography: it may point out the general outlines of countries, though it doth not enumerate *every* town or village in any one diſtrict.

The work before us is only an *Epitome of the modern Hiſtory of Europe.* It aſſumes not

not the title of an hiſtory: if, therefore, the author does all he promiſes, he hopes he ſhall not be condemned for not doing more.

AN

EPITOME

OF THE

HISTORY OF EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

The Reign of Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, King of France, and Emperor of the Weſt.

IN hiſtory, as well as in all other ſciences, it is neceſſary to ſet certain limits to our enquiries, if we would proceed with certainty; and where utility more than curioſity is our object, we muſt even contract theſe boundaries. CHAP. I.

The firſt æras of modern, as well as ancient hiſtory, are involved in fable; and the tranſactions of the immediately ſucceeding periods are handed down to us in barren chronicles, which convey no idea of the character of the agents, and, conſequently, are equally deſtitute of inſtruction and amuſement. Charles, the ſon of Pepin, on the death of his brother, Carloman, A. D. 775.

CHAP. I. found himſelf ſingly at the head of the French monarchy; but, before we proceed to the hiſtory of this illuſtrious reign, it will be neceſſary to ſay a few words of the ſtate of Germany at that time. Germany, at the acceſſion of Charlemagne to the crown of France, was principally occupied by ſaxons; they were ſtill pagans. This extenſive empire was governed by an infinit number of independent tribes, under different names: every canton modelled itſelf into a ſeparate republic; but in time of war they elected a chief or general. Charlemagne, the moſt politic, and by far the greateſt warrior of his time, maintained a war for thirty years againſt thoſe barbarous, though brave and independent people, before they were thoroughly ſubdued. A deſire of converting the ſaxons to chriſtianity, ſeems to have been one of the principal motives for proſecuting this conqueſt; and, as they were no leſs tenacious of their religion than their liberty, perſecution marched in the train of war, and ſtained with blood the fetters of ſlavery.

Witikind, ſo deſervedly celebrated by his nation, was the moſt eminent ſaxon general during theſe hoſtilities. He frequently rouſed the drooping valour of his countrymen, and revived in their hearts the love of liberty and independency. Nor were they wanting to him in attachment, for which they ſeverely paid. After an unfortunate revolt, when they went to make ſubmiſſion to Charlemagne, he ordered four thouſand

ſand five hundred of their principal men to be maſſacred, becauſe they refuſed to deliver up their general. An equal inſtance of cruelty is not, perhaps, to be met with in the hiſtory of mankind; particularly, if we conſider, that the ſaxons were not Charles's natural ſubjects, but an independent people, ſtruggling for freedom. CHAP. I.

Three other victories were neceſſary to reduce this nation wholly under his yoke. At length chriſtianity and ſervitude were cemented by blood. Witikind himſelf, wearied with misfortunes, was obliged to receive baptiſm, continuing ever after faithful to his engagements. A. D. 778.

Almoſt every year of Charles's reign was ſignalized by ſome military expedition. He marched into Spain, and carried his arms to the banks of the Ebro. The mooriſh governors of Saragoſſa and Arragon revolted, and implored the aſſiſtance of Charlemagne, offering to acknowledge him as their ſovereign. Charles, willing to extend his empire on that ſide, croſſed the Pyrenees with all expedition, and re-eſtabliſhed the mooriſh governors under his protection. In repaſſing the mountains his rear guard was defeated by the duke of Gaſcony. Here fell the famous Orlando, ſo much celebrated in romance, and repreſented as nephew to Charlemagne. The preciſe time at which Charles ſuſtained this diſgrace is not known; nor do we find that he ever revenged his defeat.

CHAP. I. It was to the poſſeſſion of Rome, and the empire of the weſt, that his ambition aſpired, and an opportunity ſoon occurred. Deſiderius, king of the lombards, father-in-law to Charles, having ſome diſpute with pope Adrian I. ravaged the papal territories, or, as they are called, the Patrimony of St. Peter, and threatened to lay ſiege to Rome itſelf. In order to avoid the danger, Adrian reſolved to have recourſe to France. Accordingly he ſent ambaſſadors privately to Charlemagne, not only imploring his aſſiſtance, but inviting him to the conqueſt of Italy; he engaged him alſo to repudiate the daughter of Deſiderius without the leaſt cauſe or formality.

Charles at length paſſed the Alps at the head of a powerful army, and the king of the lombards, abandoned by his own forces, ſhut himſelf up in Pavia, which was his capital. Charlemagne undertook the ſiege of it in the middle of winter; the city being reduced to extremity, was ſurrendered after a ſiege of ſix months; and all the terms Deſiderius could obtain, were no more than a promiſe that his life would be ſpared. Thus expired the kingdom of the lombards, which had deſtroyed the roman power in Italy, and ſubſtituted their own laws in room of thoſe enacted by the emperors. Charles claimed the kingdom by the right of conqueſt, and cauſed himſelf to be crowned with an iron crown;

crown; which is ſtill preſerved in the little town of Monza. CHAP. I.

After this ceremony he proceeded towards Rome, where, as he aſſiſted at maſs in St. Peter's church, the pope advanced, and put the imperial crown upon his head. As ſoon as the people perceived it, they cried, "Long life and victory to Charles Auguſtus, Emperor of the Romans!" Leo, who ſucceeded Adrian, preſented him with the imperial mantle, with which being inveſted, Charlemagne returned, amidſt the acclamations of the populace, to his palace. A. D. 800.

While he became emperor of the weſt, the empire of the eaſt was veſted in Irene. That empreſs, ſo famous for her courage and her crimes, who cauſed her only ſon to be put to death, after having deprived him of his eyes. She would have gladly effected the ruin of Charlemagne; but knowing herſelf too weak to contend with him in battle, ſhe reſolved to marry him, to unite the two empires. While this negotiation was on the carpet, a revolution drove her from the throne which had coſt her ſo dear. One of the principal cauſes of the fall of empires has ever been the error of dividing them among different princes. Charlemagne, by will, divided his dominions among his three ſons, Charles, Pepin, and Lewis; the particulars of this diviſion are of little conſequence, as Lewis only ſurvived his father. It is neceſſary, however to obſerve,

CHAP. I.

ſerve, that the italian provinces were aſſigned to Pepin, which donation was confirmed to his ſon Bernard, with the title of king of Italy, and proved the ruin of that prince. Charlemagne aſſociated his ſon Lewis with him in the empire, and died the year following at Aix la Chapelle, his uſual place of reſidence. The glory of the French monarchy ſeemed to die with him: he was maſter of all France, Germany, and part of Hungary; part of Spain, the Low Countries, and the continent of Italy, as far as Benevento; but, to govern ſuch an extent of empire, one muſt have the genius of a Charlemagne.

A. D. 814.

This great prince was not leſs amiable in private life, than illuſtrious in his public character: he was an affectionate father, a fond huſband, and a generous friend: his houſe was a model of œconomy, and his perſon of ſimplicity and true grandeur; he was fond of the company of learned men, and aſſembled them about him, from all parts of Europe; forming in his palace, a kind of academy, of which he himſelf condeſcended to become a member; in ſhort, he was the phœnix of his age; and though not altogether free from its prejudices, his liberal and extenſive genius, which examined every thing, and yet found time for all things, would have done honour to the moſt enlightened period.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Lewis the Debonair.

THE hiſtory of Europe, during ages after the death of Charlemagne, is little more than a catalogue of crimes. Charlemagne was hardly in his grave, when his family and empire were deſolated by a civil war. Lewis the Debonair, (ſo called on account of the gentleneſs of his manners,) was unable to ſupport ſo great a weight of empire; and his piety and parental fondneſs, however amiable in themſelves, enfeebled a character, already too weak, and an authority never reſpected. But his greateſt error was occaſioned by a blind imitation of his father's example, in dividing his dominions among his children. He aſſociated his eldeſt ſon, Lothario, with him in the empire; his ſecond ſon, Pepin, he created king of Aquitaine; and his third ſon, Lewis, king of Bavaria. Bernard, king of Italy, the grandſon of Charlemagne, was offended at this diviſion: he thought his right to the empire ſuperior to Lothario's, as his father, Pepin, was the eldeſt brother of Lewis. This unfortunate prince revolted, was made priſoner, and condemned to loſe his head; but his uncle, by a ſingular kind of lenity, mitigated his puniſhment to the loſs of his eyes; and Lewis, in or-

CHAP. II.

CHAP. II.

der to prevent future troubles, ordered three natural ſons of Charlemagne to be ſhaved, and ſhut up in a convent.

Lewis had married a ſecond wife, whoſe name was Judith: this princeſs brought him a ſon, afterwards known by the appellation of Charles the Bald, whoſe birth was the occaſion of much joy; but proved in a ſhort time the cauſe of many ſorrows. For this ſon, there was no proviſion, the imperial dominions being already divided among the children of his firſt marriage; the empreſs, therefore, who had gained a great aſcendency over her huſband, preſſed Lewis to place his ſon Charles, on a footing with his other children, by a new diviſion of the empire. Aquitaine and Bavaria were ſmall kingdoms; from them nothing could be expected; but, Lothario's ſhare was large, and might ſpare a little. Senſible of the wiſhes of his father, and prevailed upon by the entreaties of his fond mother, Lothario conſented that ſome proviſion ſhould accordingly be made for his brother Charles; but he ſoon repented, and the three brothers joined in rebellion againſt their father; the moſt ſingular circumſtance perhaps to be met with in hiſtory.

A. D. 826.

At firſt they ſhewed their diſcontent by murmuring; but the diſorder was fomented by Walla, a monk of high birth, who had formerly been in the confidence of Lewis, but was now

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in diſgrace. He declaimed againſt the court, and the empreſs in particular, accuſing her with an adulterous commerce with Count Bernard, the prime miniſter. His ſchemes ſucceeded; the emperor was abandoned by his army, and made priſoner along with his wife Judith, and her ſon Charles. The empreſs and Charles were ſhut up in a cloiſter, and Lewis was obliged to abdicate the throne. But the feelings of nature, and the voice of humanity, prevailed over the prejudices of the age. Lothario was univerſally abhorred, and his father no leſs generally pitied; his two brothers united againſt him, in behalf of that father whom they had contributed to humble. The nobility returned to their obedience, and paid their homage to Lewis as lawful ſovereign. He might now have ended his days in peace, but for the intrigues of the empreſs Judith; the object of whom was to engage Lothario in a ſcheme, by which Charles ſhould become poſſeſſed of the kingdom of Aquitaine, at the expence of the children of Pepin. But Lewis, king of Bavaria, though not injured by this new diviſion of the empire, was ſo much incenſed at its injuſtice, as he pretended, that he aſſembled the whole force of his dominions. The old king marched againſt him, but was taken ſuddenly ill, and died near Mentz, in the 72d year of his age, and the 28th year of his reign. He left a crown, a ſceptre, and a very

CHAP. II.

A. D. 840.

CHAP. II. very rich ſword to Lothario; by which it was ſuppoſed he left him the empire, on condition that he ſhould fulfil his engagements to the empreſs, and her ſon Charles. His brother, the biſhop of Mentz, obſerving that he left nothing to his ſon Lewis, then in arms againſt him, reminded him that forgiveneſs, at leaſt, was his duty. "Yes, I forgive him;" cried the dying monarch, with ſome emotion; "but tell him "from me, that he has brought my grey hairs "with ſorrow to the grave." Methinks, in reading the diſaſters which befell this too affectionate parent, we muſt, at leaſt, feel a ſecret ſatisfaction, in ſeeing his unnatural ſons, after his death, armed againſt each other. Lothario conſidered himſelf as emperor, in the moſt extenſive ſenſe of the word, and reſolved to make himſelf maſter of the whole imperial dominions; regardleſs of his engagements with Judith, or her ſon, Charles the Bald; or, the right of his brother Lewis to the kingdom of Bavaria.

Theſe two princes, united by a ſenſe of common intereſt, gave him battle at Fontenai, where fraternal hatred appeared in all its horrors. Lothario was totally defeated, and forced to divide the monarchy with his brothers. In this partition, Germany fell to the ſhare of Lewis, the ſecond brother, which has ever ſince continued ſeparate from France, and has made a diſtinct empire,

empire. Charles the Bald got, for his portion, the greateſt part of France. CHAP. II.

Lothario, ſome years after, took the habit of a monk; that, according to the language of thoſe times, he might atone for his crimes; and, though he had lived a tyrant, he might die a ſaint. In this pious diſguiſe, he expired before he had worn it quite a week. He divided his dominions among his children. Lewis had Italy, with the title of emperor; Lothario, the provinces between the Rhone, the Soan, the Menſe, and the Rhine, called, from his own name, the kingdom of Lotharingia, now Lorrain; Charles had Provence, Dauphine, and part of Burgundy. A. D. 855.

Thus was the empire of Charlemagne ſplit by continual diviſions, the ſource of continual wars; foreign invaſions, conſpired with civil diſſentions, to ſpread terror and diſorder in every quarter, but more particularly through France: the normans, or Men of the North, carried fire and ſword into the heart of this kingdom, even to the gates of Paris; their fleets ſailed up the rivers, and laid all the country waſte; the ſucceſs of their firſt expeditions excited the avarice of their indigent country-men, wherever they landed, they carried all before them.

At length Rollo, the moſt illuſtrious of this northern banditti, after having ſpread terror over all the maritime provinces of Europe, ſailed up the

CHAP. II.

the Seine, took Rouen, fortified it, and made it his head quarters. France was, at this time, at her laſt gaſp. Charles the Fat, had given only money to the barbarians; Charles the Simple, offered Rollo his daughter, and with her, part of his provinces; Rollo demanded Neuſtria and Brittaney, which Charles thought himſelf very happy to give him. Rollo was worthy of his good fortune; he ſunk the ſoldier into the ſovereign, and proved himſelf no leſs ſkilled in the arts of peace, than thoſe of war. Neuſtria, which henceforth took the name of Normandy, in honour of its new inhabitants, ſoon became happy, and flouriſhed under his laws; ſenſible that the power of a prince is always in proportion to the number of his ſubjects, he invited the better part of the Normans, from all parts, to come and ſettle in his dominions. He encouraged agriculture and induſtry; was particularly ſevere in puniſhing theft and robbery, and every ſpecies of violence; ſo that the duchy of Normandy was, in a ſhort time, not only populous and cultivated, but the Normans were regular in their manners, and obedient to the laws; a band of pirates became good citizens, and their leader, the greateſt prince and the wiſeſt legiſlator of the age in which he lived.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

England towards the Ninth Century.

THE Saxons, who had over-run England, divided the country into ſeven kingdoms, governed by their reſpective monarchs. Theſe diviſions, or heptarchy, were united under Egbert. A union of government ſeemed to promiſe internal tranquility; but human foreſight is very limited: a fleet of thoſe northern adventurers, whom we have already ſeen ravaging France, under the name of normans, or danes, ſoon gave the engliſh monarch reaſon to alter his opinion. A particular account of the dreadful ravages, that laid this wretched iſland waſte, would be equally uſeleſs and unentertaining; ſuffice it to ſay, that England, for many years after Egbert, was a continual ſcene of devaſtation; the lands lay uncultivated, through fears of continual incurſions, and the churches and monaſteries were burnt to the ground; in this terrible ſituation of affairs, nothing appeared but objects of terror, and every hope was loſt in deſpair; the wiſdom and virtues of one man, was found ſufficient to bring back happineſs, ſecurity, and order; and all the calamities of the times found redreſs in Alfred. This prince ſeemed born not only to defend his bleeding country, but even to adorn humanity. He ſuc-

CHAP. III.

A. D. 876.

CHAP. III.

ſucceeded his brother, Ethelred, to a kingdom, more than ever divided into petty ſovereignties, moſt of them occupied by danes. Almoſt every year produced a ſucceſſion of new pirates. Alfred, who was maſter only of a ſingle province in the weſt, gave the enemy battle; and, at firſt, gained ſome advantage of them; but, purſuing this victory too far, he was worſted, by reaſon of the enemy's numbers; his troops fled, and he was deſerted by every body; yet, he was ſtill undiſmayed; he begged them to make one exertion more in defence of their poſſeſſions, their liberties, and their prince.

Thus abandoned by his ſubjects, this illuſtrious monarch obliged to lay aſide the enſigns of his dignity, and aſſume the habit of a peaſant; lay concealed, but not inactive; he made frequent and unexpected ſallies upon the danes, who often felt the vigour of his arm, but knew not whence the blow came, or by whom it was directed; at length, a proſperous event emboldened the royal fugitive to leave his retreat, and enter on a ſcene of action more worthy of himſelf. Obdune, earl of Devonſhire, being beſieged in his Caſtle, by Hubbo, a celebrated daniſh general, made an unexpected ſally upon the enemy, put them to the rout, purſued them with great ſlaughter, and killed Hubbo himſelf. The news of this victory was immediately carried to Alfred, who was happy to ſee the ſeeds of valour beginning to revive

vive among his countrymen; but, before he would aſſemble them in arms, he reſolved to inſpect the ſituation of the enemy's camp, which he entered in the diſguiſe of a harper; he obſerved the ſupine ſecurity of the ravagers, and their neglect of all military diſcipline: encouraged by theſe propitious appearances, he ſent ſecret intelligence to his moſt powerful ſubjects, and ſummoned them to aſſemble, along with their retainers, on the borders of Selwood Foreſt; when, taking advantage of his previous knowledge of the enemy's ſituation, he ſurpriſed them, in their moſt unguarded quarter, and gained a complete victory. CHAP. III.

The danes were at that time divided by inteſtine factions; and, Alfred, who was no leſs able a negociator, than a courageous warrior, was, to the general ſurpriſe, unanimouſly choſen king by the danes and engliſh.

After providing for the ſecurity of his kingdom, he employed himſelf in improving and poliſhing his country; he invited over the moſt celebrated ſcholars, from all parts of Europe; he founded, or at leaſt repaired the Univerſity of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges, revenues, and immunities; his laws were mild, but ſtrictly enforced; he was the firſt that ſettled juries, and divided England into ſhires and counties, and encouraged the ſpirit of commerce among his ſubjects.

CHAP. III.

This extraordinary man, who is juſtly conſidered, both by natives and foreigners, as the greateſt prince, after Charlemagne, that Europe ſaw for many ages, and one of the wiſeſt and beſt that ever adorned the annals of any nation, died in the year 901, in the vigour of his age and the full ſtrength of his faculties, after a life of fifty-three years and a half; his merit, both in public and private life, may be ſet in oppoſition to that of any ſovereign or citizen, in ancient or modern times.

CHAP. IV.

The German Empire, under Otho the Great.

THE german empire, after it became ſeparated from France, merits little attention 'till the reign of Otho I. This prince, deſervedly ſtiled the Great, as being the moſt powerful emperor ſince Charlemagne, and who reunited Italy to the imperial dominions, was elected at Aix la Chapelle, in the year 936, by the unanimous conſent of the diet there aſſembled. CHAP. VI.

He began his reign with the moſt upright adminiſtration, and ſeemed deſirous to live in peace and tranquility; but his quiet was ſoon interrupted by wars, both foreign and domeſtic, which he had ſufficient abilities to manage, and which terminated in his aggrandizement.

The hungarians, according to cuſtom, invaded the empire, committing every ſpecies of barbarity. Otho ſoon put a ſtop to their ravages; he came up with, and defeated them with great ſlaughter. Immediately after his return from this victory, he was informed that the bohemians revolted; Bohemia was then entirely barbarous, and moſtly pagan. Otho, after a variety of ſtruggles, rendered it tributary to Germany; and alſo obliged the inhabitants to embrace chriſtianity.

CHAP. IV.

No ſooner did Otho find himſelf in quiet poſſeſſion of the North, than the South attracted his eyes; and a favourable opportunity offered of gratifying his ambition.

The italians themſelves, who were factious and feeble, could neither ſubmit to be governed by their own countrymen, or remain free, invited him to paſs the Alps.

When Otho entered Italy, he behaved as Charlemagne had done before him;—he cauſed himſelf to be conſecrated and crowned emperor of the romans, by the hands of pope John XII. after which he took the name of Cæſar Auguſtus, and compelled the pope to ſwear allegiance to him, on the tomb where the body of St. Peter is ſaid to be laid. The pope having thus given himſelf a maſter, in him, whom he only wanted for a protector, ſoon proved falſe to his oath, and entered into a league againſt the emperor; but, he wanted power to carry through the undertaking. Otho was ſtrong enough to puniſh him for it; he called a council, in which he brought the pope to a formal trial; he convened the lords, biſhops, and cardinals, in the church of St. Peter; where, in preſence of the people, he publicly accuſed the holy father of having lain with ſeveral women; that he made a child biſhop of Todi; that he had made a ſale of ordinations and benifices; that he had put out the eyes of one of his own relations; and that he cauſed a cardinal

cardinal to be caſtrated, and afterwards to be put to death; in fine, that he did not believe in Jeſus Chriſt. However, this young pontiff, who was then only twenty ſeven years of age, appears to have been depoſed, and Leo XIIIth elected in his room; but John had the courage to ſtir up the romans again, and oppoſing council to council, Leo was depoſed; ſoon after this revolution, pope John was aſſaſſinated in the arms of one of his miſtreſſes. CHAP. IV.

Otho re-inſtated Leo in his dignity, and returned to Germany, covered with glory and ſucceſs, and lived to enjoy the fruits of his victories two years in his native country; he died in 973, after a reign of thirty ſix years; during which, by his generoſity and courage, he had juſtly acquired the appellation of Otho the Great, the conqueror of Italy, and the reſtorer of the empire of Charlemagne.

Otho the ſecond, ſucceeded his father, and reigned about eight years, without any remarkable occurrence to arreſt the attention of the reader.

Otho the third, elected emperor, ſucceeded his father at the age of twelve; and his uncle and his mother diſputing the adminiſtration, Germany was diſquieted by a turbulent regency; but when the emperor, who proved a brave and enterprizing prince, came of age, all things were ſoon reduced into order; he defeated the A. D. 966.

danes,

CHAP. IV.

danes, who had invaded the empire, and entered into a league with Eric, king of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway.

The affairs of the North being ſettled, Otho marched into Italy at the interceſſion of pope John XVth, who was perſecuted by Creſentius. Alarmed at the name of Otho, which had ſo often proved fatal to their confederates, the rebels returned to their duty, and Creſcentius was pardoned; but ſcarce had the emperor left Rome, than that licentious ſpirit again revolted; enraged at this freſh inſult, Otho returned with a powerful army to Rome, which he took by aſſault; and ordered Creſentius to be beheaded.

The ſaracens, about this time, making an irruption into the Campania of Rome, the emperor, while he was aſſembling forces to oppoſe their progreſs, is ſaid to have been poiſoned by a pair of gloves, ſent to him by the widow of Creſentius, whom he had debauched under a promiſe of marriage.

A. D. 1003.

The empire ſuſtained a great loſs, in the death of this prince, who, was equally brave, reſolute, and juſt; as he died without children, Henry, duke of Bavaria, grand ſon to Otho the ſecond, was elected emperor, and conſecrated under the name of Henry the Second.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

England, from the Death of Alfred, to the Norman Conqueſt.

ENGLAND, from the death of Alfred, to the daniſh conqueſt, affords few objects to arreſt the attention; little progreſs was made in letters, or politeneſs, and the conſtitution continued nearly the ſame. CHAP. V.

Canute, king of Denmark, a prince both active and brave, and at the head of a numerous army, invaded England, and ſoon reduced it under ſubjection: the native engliſh were treated like ſlaves; inſomuch, that the hiſtorians of theſe times acknowledge, that when an engliſhman met a dane, he was obliged to ſtop till the latter paſſed by. The race of Canute failing, the engliſh ſhook off the daniſh yoke, and conferred the crown on Edward, a deſcendent from the ancient Angli-Saxon kings, who was called the Confeſſor. This revolution was effected without bloodſhed, and the mild and equitable government of Edward, ſoon reconciled the danes, no leſs than the engliſh, to his ſway; but the engliſh, in vain, flattered themſelves, that they were for ever delivered from foreigners; a ſhort time convinced them that the evil was rather ſuſpended, than removed. A. D. 1017.

CHAP. V.

Edward had been educated in Normandy, and having contracted many intimacies with the natives of that country, as well as an affection to their manners, the court of England was ſoon filled with normans, who were diſtinguiſhed by the royal favour, and had great influence in the national council. He had alſo, it appears, though married to a beautiful woman, made an indiſcreet vow never to cohabit with her, which rendered his bed ſterile; but, obtained from the monks, the title of Saint, or Confeſſor; and he had given his kinſman, William duke of Normandy, hopes of ſucceeding to the engliſh crown. What uſe that enterpriſing prince made of this promiſe, real, or pretended, we ſhall afterwards have occaſion to ſee.

A. D. 1066.

Edward died without appointing a ſucceſſor. Harold, who ſucceeded him, was not of his family; but came to the throne, by the moſt inconteſtible of all rights, the ſuffrages of the people.

The firſt danger he experienced was from abroad. Hallagar, king of Norway, invaded England, with a fleet of three hundred ſail. Harold was no ſooner informed of this diſaſter, than he haſtened to the North; anxious for the ſafety of his people, and ambitious to ſhew himſelf worthy of that crown, which had been conferred on him by his countrymen.

The

The engliſh flocked from all quarters to his ſtandard, ſo that when he reached the enemy, he found himſelf in condition to to give them battle. The action was long and bloody, but terminated in the total defeat of the danes. CHAP. V.

Harold, however, had ſcarce time to rejoice on account of his victory, before he received intelligence, that the duke of Normandy was landed, with a numerous army, in the South, and determined to diſpute his crown.

The norman prince founded his claim on a pretended will of Edward the Confeſſor, in his favour; and alſo on an oath extorted from Harold, when ſhipwrecked on the coaſt of France, that he would never aſpire to the ſucceſſion, and by which he bound himſelf to ſupport the pretenſions of William.

The will Harold knew to be without foundation, and the oath he entirely diſregarded, as it had been drawn from him by the fear of violence; he, therefore, replied to the norman ambaſſadors, who ſummoned him to reſign the kingdom, that he was determined ſtrenuouſly to maintain thoſe national liberties with which he had been entruſted; and that the ſame moment ſhould put a period to his life and government.

The anſwer was what William expected; he was therefore prepared for it; he knew the valour of Harold, and the power of the engliſh

CHAP. V.

nation; but he conſulted only his ambition and his courage.

A. D. 1066.

Both armies met at Haſtings; the Normans were much ſuperior in numbers, as well as diſcipline: the battle laſted twelve hours, when Harold was ſhot in the brain by an arrow, while bravely combating at the head of his troops; and the engliſh, diſpirited by the death of their leader, gave way on all ſides, and were purſued with great ſlaughter by the victorious normans. Thus was gained by William, afterwards ſurnamed the Conqueror, the famous battle of Haſtings, which terminated the ſaxon monarchy in England; and which, by the heroic feats of valour diſplayed on both ſides, ſeemed worthy to decide the fate of ſo mighty a kingdom.

CHAP. VI.

France, in the Time of Hugh Capet.

CHAP. VI.

WHILE England changed its maſters, France alſo had changed its reigning family; and was become, like Germany, a government entirely feudal. Each province had its hereditary counts or dukes; the kingdom was a monſtrous aſſemblage of members, without any compact body.

In the death of Lewis V. the Carlovingian race of kings ended; the right of ſucceſſion belonged to Charles duke of Lorrain, uncle to Lewis; but the condition of vaſſal of the empire, appeared to the French nobility as a ſufficient reaſon for excluding him. Of the princes or nobles, who held immediately of the crown, Hugh Capet was not the leaſt powerful; he poſſeſſed the dukedom of France, which extended as far as Touraine; he was alſo count of Paris; he, therefore, ſeized the crown on the death of Lewis. An extreme devotion, real or apparent, recommended him to the people; he was acknowledged in an aſſembly of nobles; and the farther to eſtabliſh his throne, he aſſociated his ſon Robert in the government of his kingdom.

Nothing

CHAP. VI.

Nothing remarkable happened during Hugh's reign, who conducted all things with great prudence and moderation; and had the ſingular honour of eſtabliſhing a new family on the throne, with few circumſtances of violence, and without ſhedding blood. He died in the 57th year of his age, and the eighth of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert, a prince of a leſs vigorous, though not of a leſs amiable character. The moſt remarkable circumſtance in the reign of Robert, is his excommunication by the pope. This prince had eſpouſed Bertha, his couſin, in the fourth degree; a marriage in itſelf lawful: the church of Rome had the boldneſs to impoſe a ſeven years penance on the king, ordered him to quit his wife, and threatened him with excommunication, in caſe of refuſal. This appears an incredible ſtretch of audacity; but the ignorance and ſuperſtition of thoſe times might have ſuffered it. Gregory V. who fulminated forth this excommunication, was by birth a german, and under the influence of Otho III. who was no friend to Robert; therefore, we may ſuppoſe, reaſons of ſtate had as great a ſhare in this ſcandalous proceeding, as bigotry and fanaticiſm.

A. D. 997.

Hiſtorians tell us, that this excommunication had ſuch an effect in France, that the king was abandoned by all his ſubjects, two ſervants only ſtaying

ſtaying with him; and theſe threw into the fire all the victuals he left at his meals; ſo fearful were they of what had been touched by an excommunicated perſon; but the king giving way to ſuperſtitious terrors, or afraid of civil commotions, at laſt repudiated his wife Bertha, and married Conſtance, daughter to the count Arles, in whom he found a tyrant, inſtead of an amiable conſort. CHAP. VI.

Robert died ſoon after this tranſaction, leaving two ſons, Henry and Robert. Henry was 27 years of age at his ſucceſſion to the throne, and with all the ſpirit of a young man, he had the ſagacity and prudence of one more advanced in years; without which the crown would have been ſhaken from his head. A. D. 1026.

His mother Conſtance, who hated him, and was ambitious to govern, had drawn over to her party a great many lords and biſhops, under pretence of ſupporting the cauſe of her younger ſon Robert: the king, therefore, after ſome ineffectual ſtruggles, was obliged to take refuge in Normandy, where he was received with all poſſible reſpect by duke Robert, who aſſured him, that all his forces were at his diſpoſal; nor were theſe mere expreſſions of civility; an army of normans entered France on one ſide, while the king and royal party invaded it on the other; the queen dowager and her faction were

CHAP. VI.

were humbled, and Henry recovered his kingdom.

Henry died in 1060, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Philip I. who was only eight years of age at the time of his ſucceſſion.

CHAP. VII.

Spain, and the Empire of Conſtantinople, during the Ninth and Tenth Centuries.

SPAIN was afflicted with misfortunes and revolutions of another kind; the Goths, who had uſurped this kingdom, were expelled from hence about the eighth century, by the Muſſulmans, or moors of Africa. The Spaniſh Chriſtians retired to the mountains of Aſturias, and increaſed conſiderably under Alphonſo, ſurnamed the Great. The moors poſſeſſed more than three fourths of Spain, and the moſt fertile provinces; among them, as in other nations of Europe, a crowd of too powerful nobles affected independency, and the ſovereign was obliged to contend with his ſubjects for dominion. CHAP. VII.

This was the time to have cruſhed the mahometan power; but the chriſtians were not more united than their enemies; though continually at war with the moors, they were always ſacrificing each other. The reign of Alphonſo the Great, was full of conſpiracies and revolts; his own wife, and his two ſons, were among the number of the rebels; he reſigned his crown to his eldeſt ſon, and even generouſly fought under his command. He A. D. 912. died

CHAP. VII.

died with the glory of a hero, and the piety of a ſaint. Ramiro, another ſpaniſh hero, gained

A. D. 938.

the celebrated victory of Simancas, where the moors are ſaid to have loſt four ſcore thouſand men. About the beginning of the eleventh century, the race of mooriſh kings being extinct, the kingdom of Cardovo was diſmembered by the ambition of a number of noblemen, who all uſurped the title of king.

Toledo, Valentia, Seville, Saragoſſa, and almoſt all the great cities had their independent kings. The chriſtian provinces were changed into kingdoms in the ſame manner: they had a king of Navarre, of Caſtile, and Arragon. Perpetual jealouſies, with all the crimes that attend them, were the conſequence of theſe diviſions; treachery, poiſonings, aſſaſſinations, the common weapons of petty neighbouring and rival princes, who have much ambition, and ſmall means of gratifying it. Hence, the hiſtory of Spain becomes leſs important in proportion to the encreaſe of the kingdoms.

CHAP. VIII.

The Empire of Conſtantinople.

WHILE the empire of Charlemagne was thus diſmembered, and the inundations of the ſaracens and normans laid waſte the whole weſtern empire, that of Conſtantinople (to borrow a ſimile from a well known author) "ſtill ſubſiſted, "like a large tree, vigorous, though old, ſtript "of ſome of its roots, and buffeted on every "ſide by ſtorms and tempeſts." CHAP. VIII. A. D. 801.

This empire had been deſpoiled of Syria, and a part of Aſia Minor; and, while the frontiers were continually ſuffering encroachments and devaſtations, its capital was the theatre of revolutions and crimes: the emperor Maurice, and his five ſons, maſſacred; Phocas murdered; Conſtantine poiſoned, by the empreſs Martina, who had her tongue pulled out, whilſt the noſe of her ſon was cut off before her face; Conſtans knocked in the head, in the bath, by his own ſervants; Conſtantine Pogonatus putting out the eyes of his two brothers. In this manner was the empire governed, during the ſpace of two hundred years.

Yet the Greeks were ſtill the moſt learned and poliſhed people in Europe, and Conſtantinople the

CHAP. VIII.

the largeſt and moſt beautiful city, and the only one where the ancienter manners remained.

Thus we rapidly traverſe the wilds of hiſtory, where the objects are confuſed, rude, and unintereſting; but theſe firſt ſtages are neceſſary, in order to arrive at more cultivated fields.

CHAP. IX.

The German Empire, and the Italian States, to the Death of Henry V.

HENRY II. dying without iſſue, great diſputes enſued about the nomination of a ſucceſſor. The princes and ſtates aſſembled, elected Conrad, duke of Franconia. The lombards revolting, ſoon after the election of the new emperor, Conrad marched into Italy, and reduced the rebels by force of arms; he went to Rome, and was conſecrated by pope John the XXth. But his ſtay at Rome was very ſhort; ſcarce was the coronation over, when he was obliged to return into Germany, on account of ſome inſurrections raiſed in his abſence; but they were ſuppreſſed by the valour of Conrad, who died ſoon after, leaving behind him the reputation of a juſt, generous, and magnanimous prince. Henry III. was elected, in conſequence of his father's recommendation; the firſt years of his reign were ſignalized by ſucceſsful wars againſt Bohemia, Poland, and Hungary; Rome and Italy, as uſual, were involved in confuſion, and diſtracted by faction. CHAP. IX. A. D. 1039.

Henry depoſed pope Gregory VI. as he was not conſulted at the election, and filled the papal chair with his own chancellor, who aſſumed the name of Clement II.

CHAP. IX. A. D. 1051.

About the ſame time, the emperor cauſed his infant ſon, afterwards the famous Henry IV. to be elected king of the Romans; a title ſtill uſed for the acknowledged heir of the empire.

Henry IV. ſurnamed the Great, was only five years old at his father's death; he was immediately acknowledged emperor, and the care of his education was committed to his mother Agnes; ſhe was a woman of ſpirit and addreſs, and diſcharged both her public and private truſt with diligence and capacity.

About this time, a number of norman adventurers landed in Apulia and Calabria, drove out the ſaracens, and made themſelves maſters of the country; Sicily ſoon after ſubmitted to their arms. The pope, wanting a ſupport againſt the emperors, made protectors and vaſſals of theſe people; the normans readily did homage for their lands, and agreed to hold them of the church. Hence the pope's claim of ſuperiority over the kingdom of Naples and Sicily.

Henry IV. aſſumed the reins of government at the age of twenty-two, and began his adminiſtration with reſtraining the theſts, robberies, and extortions, which his ſubjects of the duchy of Saxony exerciſed upon ſtrangers, as well as upon each other; but the ſaxon princes and nobles, who were gainers by theſe abuſes, particularly by the infamous practice of impriſoning travellers, and making them pay for their ranſom, oppoſed the intended

intended reformation, and entered into an aſſoci- CHAP. IX.
ation againſt the emperor, under pretence that their liberties were endangered.

In this rebellious diſpoſition they were encouraged by the arrogance of pope Alexander II. who, at the inſtigation of Hildebrand, afterwards the famous Gregory VII. ſummoned Henry to appear before the tribunal of the holy ſee, on account of his looſe life, and to anſwer the charge of having expoſed the inveſtiture of biſhops to ſale.

Henry, who was at war with the ſaxons, treated the pope's mandate with the contempt it deſerved; he carried on the war againſt the enemy with vigour, totally routed them in a bloody engagement, and made himſelf maſter of all Saxony. The heads of the rebellion aſked pardon, and begged to be reſtored to favour; he generouſly accepted their ſubmiſſion, and peace was reſtored to Germany. But Henry was not ſuffered long to enjoy the fruits of his valour; a new ſtorm threatened him from Italy, which afterwards fell with violence on his head, and ſhook all the thrones in Chriſtendom. On the death of Alexander II. Hildebrand had been elected A. D. 1075. pope, under the name of Gregory VII. and though he had not aſked the emperor's voice, he prudently waited for his confirmation, before he aſſumed the tiara. He obtained it by this mark of ſubmiſſion. Henry confirmed his election,

CHAP. IX.

and Gregory having nothing further to fear, took off the maſk. He began his pontificate with excommunicating every eccleſiaſtic who ſhould receive a benefice from a layman, and every layman by whom ſuch benefice ſhould be conferred. This was engaging the church in an open quarrel with the ſovereigns of all nations; but the thunder of the holy ſee was more particularly directed againſt the emperor; and as this diſpute, and its conſequences merit attention, we ſhall be more circumſtantial than uſual.

The predeceſſors of Henry IV. had always enjoyed the right of nominating biſhops and abbots; this right they had in common with almoſt all princes. Gregory, however, ſent two legates to ſummon Henry before him, as a delinquent, becauſe he ſtill continued to beſtow inveſtitures, notwithſtanding the apoſtolic decree to the contrary; adding, that if he ſhould fail to yield obedience to the church, he muſt expect to be excommunicated and dethroned. Incenſed at this arrogant meſſage, Henry diſmiſſed the legates with contempt, and convoked a council at Worms, conſiſting of biſhops, abbots, and doctors, in which he depoſed the pope.

In conſequence of which, Henry ſent an ambaſſador to Rome, with a formal deprivation of Gregory, who in his turn convoked a council, at which were preſent an hundred and ten biſhops, who unanimouſly agreed, that the pope had juſt

cauſe

cauſe to depoſe Henry; to diſſolve the oath of allegiance which princes and ſtates had taken in his favour; and to prohibit them from holding any correſpondence with him, on pain of excommunication; which was immediately fulminated againſt the emperor and his adherents.—"In the "name of Almighty God, and by our authority, "I prohibit Henry, the ſon of our emperor "Henry, from governing the Germanic king- "dom and Italy; I releaſe all chriſtians from "their oath of allegiance to him, and ſtrictly "forbid all perſons from ſerving or attending "him as king." This is the firſt inſtance of a pope pretending to deprive a ſovereign of his crown; the circular letters written by this pontiff breathe the ſame ſpirit with this ſentence of depoſition; he there repeats ſeveral times, that biſhops are ſuperior to kings, and made to judge them; expreſſions alike artful and preſumptuous, and calculated for bringing in all the churchmen of the world to his ſtandard. CHAP. IX.

Gregory knew very well that the german biſhops would come over immediately to his party, and draw along with them many of the nobles, ever jealous of the imperial power; the flames of civil war ſtill lay ſmothering, and a bull, properly directed, was ſufficient to ſet it in a blaze.

The ſaxons, Henry's old enemies, made uſe of the papal diſpleaſure, as a pretence for rebelling againſt him; nay, thoſe very princes and

CHAP. IX. prelates who had aſſiſted in depoſing of Gregory, gave up their monarch to be tried by the pope; and his holineſs was ſolicited to come to Augſburg for that purpoſe.

A. D. 1077. Willing to prevent this odious trial at Augſburg, Henry took an unaccountable reſolution. He ſuddenly paſſed the Alps, with a few domeſtics, to aſk abſolution of the pope, his oppreſſor, who was then in the fortreſs of Canoſa, on the Appenine mountains, with the counteſs Matilda: at the gates of this palace, the emperor preſented himſelf as an humble penitent; they ſtopped him in the inner court, ſtripped him of his cloaths, and put on him ſackcloth. In this condition, and bare-foot, he was obliged to remain in the court three days, though it was then in the month of January, before he was permitted to kiſs the feet of his holineſs, who at that time was ſhut up with the Counteſs Matilda, whoſe ſpiritual director he had long been, and ſome ſay her gallant; but be that as it may, her attachment to Gregory was ſo great, that ſhe made over all her eſtates to the apoſtolic ſee; and this donation is the true cauſe of all the wars which, ſince that period, have raged between the emperors and popes.

The emperor was at length permitted to throw himſelf at the pontiff's feet, who condeſcended to grant him abſolution; but not till he had ſworn obedience to him in all things, and promiſed to ſubmit to his ſolemn deciſion at Augſburg; ſo that

that Henry got nothing but diſgrace by his jour- CHAP. IX.
ney, while Gregory, elated by his triumph, and now looking upon himſelf (not altogether without reaſon) as the lord and maſter of all the crowned heads in Chriſtendom, ſaid in ſeveral of his letters, that it was his duty to pull down the pride of kings.

This extraordinary accommodation of Henry's, gave much diſguſt to the princes of Italy, who were on the point of deſerting him; but happily for the emperor, their deteſtation for the pope's arrogance, overbalanced their indignation for his meanneſs. Henry took advantage of this temper, and by a change of fortune hitherto unknown to the german emperors, he found a ſtrong party in Italy, when he was abandoned in Germany; all Lombardy took up arms againſt the pope, while he was raiſing all Germany againſt the emperor.

Gregory, on one hand, made uſe of every art to get another emperor elected in Germany, and Henry left nothing undone to perſuade the italians to chooſe another pope. The germans choſe Rodolph, duke of Suabia; upon which Gregory wrote word, that he would determine between Henry and Rodolph, and give the crown to him who would ſhew moſt ſubmiſſion to his authority. Henry, however, truſted more to the valour of his troops, than to the deciſion of the holy father. He ſet out immediately for Germany,

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where he defeated his enemies in ſeveral engagements; and Gregory ſeeing no hopes of ſubmiſſion, thundered out a ſecond excommunication againſt him, confirming, at the ſame time, the election of Rodolph, to whom he ſent a golden crown, on which the following verſe, equally haughty and puerile, was engraved:

Petra dedit Petro—Petrus diadema, Rodolpho.

In order to avoid the effects of this ſecond excommunication, Henry took a ſtep worthy of himſelf; he aſſembled at Brixon, about twenty german biſhops, who acting alſo for the prelates of Lombardy, unanimouſly reſolved, that Gregory the VIIth, having rendered himſelf unworthy of the papal chair, by his miſconduct and rebellion, he ought to be depoſed from a dignity he ſo little deſerved. They accordingly degraded Hildebrand, and elected, in his room, Guebart, archbiſhop of Ravenna, a perſon of undoubted merit, who took the name of Clement III. Henry was obliged, in the mean time, to employ all his forces againſt his rival, Rodolph, who was defeated, and afterwards ſlain by the famous Godfrey, of Bouillon, then in the ſervice of Henry, and the ſame who made the conqueſt of Jeruſalem.

Thus delivered from his formidable antagoniſt, Henry ſoon diſperſed the reſt of his enemies in Germany,

Germany, and ſet out for Italy, in order to ſettle Clement in the papal chair; but the gates of Rome being ſhut, he was obliged to attack it in form; the ſiege continued upwards of two years, and was at length taken by aſſault; but Gregory was not taken in it; he retired into the Caſtle of St. Angelo, and from thence defied and excommunicated the conqueror. CHAP. IX. A. D. 1084.

While the ſiege was going on, and the emperor called about ſome affairs into Lombardy, Gregory was releaſed, and died ſoon after at Salerno.

The death of Gregory, however, did not extinguiſh the flame which his ambition had raiſed. The romans, not ſatisfied with Clement, the emperor's pope, elected Urban II. who ſeduced the emperor's ſon, Conrad, into a rebellion againſt his father, and after the death of this unnatural ſon, his brother, who was afterwards Henry V. made war againſt his father, and having betrayed him into his power, ſhut him up in Mentz; whither two legates came from the pope to depoſe him, and two deputies ſent from the diet, by his ſon, diveſted him of the imperial robes; while they were thus employed, he exclaimed, "Great "God!" the tears trickling down his venerable cheeks, "thou art the God of vengeance, and "will repay this outrage:" he died ſoon after at Liege, in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and forty-ninth of his reign. A. D. 1106.

He

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He was a prince of great courage, and excellent endowments of body and mind; there was an air of dignity in his appearance, that ſpoke the greatneſs of his ſoul; he poſſeſſed a natural fund of eloquence and vivacity; was of a mild and merciful temper, extremely charitable, and an admirable pattern of piety and reſignation.

Henry V. who had dethroned his father, and afterwards dug him out of his grave, as an excommunicated perſon, maintained the ſame prerogatives as his father againſt the church, as ſoon as he came in poſſeſſion of the empire. In order to terminate this old conteſt, Henry invited the pope into Germany; but Paſcal, who ſucceeded Gregory, being well acquainted with the emperor's implacable diſpoſition, thought proper to take a different route, and put himſelf under the protection of Philip I. king of France, who undertook to mediate an accommodation between the empire and the holy ſee; a conference was accordingly held at Chalons, but without effect.

Upon this, Henry paſſed the Alps with a powerful army; and Rome, once more, was drenched in blood; treaties, perjuries, excommunications, and murders, followed each other in rapid ſucceſſion; at length, Henry V. after having created, depoſed, baniſhed, and recalled ſeveral popes; and having been as often excommunicated as his father, was obliged to put an end

end to the conteſt, and give up the point of inveſtitures: thus finiſhed this bloody and ridiculous war! CHAP. IX.

Henry died at Utrecht ſoon after his accommodation with Rome; he was a wiſe, politic, and reſolute prince; and excluſive of his unnatural behaviour to his father, was worthy of the imperial throne.

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CHAP. X.

England, from the Battle of Haſtings, to the Death of Henry I.

CHAP. X. NOTHING could exceed the conſternation of the engliſh, when informed of the unfortunate battle of Haſtings, the death of their king, and the ſlaughter of their principal nobility; and, that they might not have leiſure to recover themſelves, William immediately put himſelf in motion, firmly reſolved to terminate an enterprize, which celerity and vigour could only render finally ſucceſsful. He advanced, by quick marches, towards London, where the magiſtrates of the city came out to meet him, and made him the tender of a crown, which they were not in a condition to refuſe to a conqueror.

William, thus poſſeſſed of the throne, knew equally well how to govern as to conquer, and ſignalized his reign by extinguiſhing rebellions, fruſtrating invaſions, and enacting and ſeverely executing rigorous laws. The antient britons, the danes, and anglo-ſaxons, lay now all confounded, in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery; his normans, who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, were rewarded by him with the lands of the conquered. Hence came that multiplicity of norman

norman families, whoſe deſcendants, or, at leaſt, their names, ſtill ſubſiſt in England.

William aboliſhed all the ancient laws of the country, to make way for thoſe of Normandy; he moreover ordered, that all pleadings ſhould be in the norman language. This monarch's death was occaſioned by a quarrel not altogether worthy of his life; a witticiſm gave riſe to a war. William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed ſometime by ſickneſs, which gave Philip I. of France, occaſion to ſay, that he was ſurpriſed that his brother of England ſhould be ſo long in being delivered of his belly. William ſent him word, that, as ſoon as he was up, he would, at his churching, preſent ſuch a number of tapers, as would ſet the kingdom of France in a flame. Accordingly, on his recovery, he led an army into France, and laid every thing waſte with fire and ſword; but the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities was ſtopt by an accident, which put an end to the conqueror's life. His horſe ſuddenly ſtarting aſide, he bruiſed his belly on the pummel of the ſaddle, which brought on a mortification, of which he died, in the ſixty-third year of his age. He left Normandy and Mayne to his eldeſt ſon, Robert. He wrote to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, deſiring to crown William, his ſecond ſon, king of England; and A. D. 1087. he bequeathed to Henry, the youngeſt of the three, his mother's jointure. William II. ſur-

named

CHAP. X. named Rufus, or the red, from the colour of his hair, was inſtantly crowned king of England; and Robert took peaceable poſſeſſion of Normandy; but this partition of the empire, by the late king, occaſioned many diſputes in England, which ſeemed to promiſe a ſudden revolution.

The norman barons, who generally poſſeſſed large eſtates, both in England and in their own country, were uneaſy at the ſeparation of thoſe territories; and foreſeeing that it would be impoſſible for them to preſerve long their allegiance to two maſters, they eagerly deſired an union as before, and looked upon Robert as the proper owner of the whole.

A compariſon between the perſonal qualities of the two princes, alſo led the malcontents to prefer the elder. Robert was brave, open, ſincere, and generous; whereas William, though not leſs brave than his brother, was violent, haughty, and tyrannical, and ſeemed diſpoſed to govern more by fear than the love of his people; a powerful conſpiracy was therefore carried on againſt William: and Odo, the late king's brother, undertook to conduct it to maturity.

William, ſenſible of the danger that threatened him, endeavoured to gain the affections of the native engliſh, whom he prevailed on by promiſes of future good behaviour, to eſpouſe his intereſts; but, after he had ſubdued the rebels, he paid no regard to his promiſes, and ſhowed the

the firſt inſtance of his perverſe inclinations, in his ingratitude to the engliſh, who had ſeated him on the throne. CHAP. X.

But the memory of theſe tranſient broils, and unſucceſsful treaſons, was quite ſunk in the tumults of the cruſades, which then engroſſed the attention of Europe, and have ſince employed the curioſity of mankind, as the moſt ſingular monument of human folly that ever appeared on the face of our globe.

Robert, duke of Normandy, impelled by the bravery and miſtaken generoſity of his ſpirit, had early enliſted himſelf in the firſt cruſade; and being always unprovided with money, he found it would be impoſſible for him, without ſome ſupply, to appear in a manner ſuitable to his rank.

He therefore reſolved to ſell his dominions; and he offered them to his brother William, for ſo ſmall a ſum as ten thouſand merks. The bargain was concluded, and William was put in poſſeſſion of Normandy and Mayne; while Robert, providing himſelf with a magnificent train, ſet out for the holy land in purſuit of glory, and in full hopes of ſecuring his eternal ſalvation.

The fanaticiſms of the times afforded the king of England another opportunity of increaſing his dominions. Poitiers and Guienne were offered to be mortgaged to him, for the ſame pious purpoſe that

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that had induced Robert to part with Normandy and Mayne.

The bargain was concluded, and William had prepared a fleet and army to take poſſeſſion of his new territories, when an accident put an end to his life. He was engaged on a hunting party in New Foreſt, accompanied by Sir Walter Tyrell, a French gentleman, remarkable for his addreſs in archery, and as William had diſ-

A. D. 1100.

mounted, after a chace, Tyrell, impatient to ſhew his dexterity, let fly an arrow at a ſtag, which ſuddenly ſtarted before him; the arrow glancing againſt a tree, ſtruck the king in the heart, and inſtantly ſlew him.

William appears to have been a violent and tyrannical prince, a perfidious, encroaching, and dangerous neighbour, and an unkind and ungenerous relation. As he never was married, the ſucceſſion, of courſe, devolved upon Robert, his elder brother; but he was then too diſtant to aſſert his claims.

In the mean time Henry, who had been hunting in the New Foreſt, when his brother was ſlain, immediately galloped to Wincheſter, ſecured the royal treaſure, was ſaluted king, and proceeded to the exerciſe of ſovereign power; but the policy and prudence of Henry ran great hazard of being fruſtrated, by the ſudden appearance of his brother Robert, who returned from the holy land, about a month after the death

of

of William, took poſſeſſion of Normandy without reſiſtance, and made preparations for aſſerting his title to England. CHAP. X.

The great reputation which Robert had acquired in the eaſt, forwarded his pretenſions; and the Norman barons, ſtill impreſſed with the conſequences of the ſeparation of the duchy and the kingdom, diſcovered the ſame diſcontent which had appeared on the acceſſion of Rufus.

Henry, therefore, with great difficulty, raiſed an army to oppoſe Robert, who had landed at Portſmouth. The two armies continued ſome days in ſight of each other, without coming to action; and by the interpoſition of archbiſhop Anſelm, an accommodation was brought about between the two brothers. In this treaty it was agreed, that Robert ſhould reſign his pretenſions to England, and receive an annual penſion of three thouſand marks; and that if either of the princes ſhould die without iſſue, the other ſhould ſucceed to his dominions; but theſe conditions, though ſo favourable to Henry, were ſoon violated by his rapacity and ambition. The affairs of Normandy falling into confuſion, Henry went over, by invitation, to regulate them; but inſtead of ſupporting his brother's authority, he increaſed the diſcontents by every under-hand art, and at length made himſelf maſter of the duchy. The unfortunate Robert, who ſeemed only to be the ſport of fortune, was carried priſoner to England,

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where he remained in cuſtody during the remainder of his life.

But Henry's public proſperity was much overbalanced by a domeſtic misfortune: his ſon William, who had attained his eighteenth year, periſhed at ſea, on his return from Normandy, with all his retinue. The father was ſo much affected by the news, that he is ſaid never to have ſmiled more.

Henry had not any legitimate children, except his daughter Matilda, who becoming a widow by the death of the emperor Henry V. he married her to Geoffrey Plantagenet, eldeſt ſon of the count of Anjou. She was ſoon after delivered of a ſon, who received the name of Henry.

A. D. 1135.

The joy of this event, and the pleaſure of his daughter's company, made Henry take up his reſidence in Normandy, where he died in the 67th year of his age, and 35th of his reign, leaving his daughter Matilda heireſs of his dominions. He was one of the moſt accompliſhed princes that ever filled the Engliſh throne; poſſeſſing all the qualities which could fit him for the government of an extenſive territory. He granted the city of London a charter and privileges; and from this firſt conceſſion, we may date the origin of Engliſh liberty, ſuch as we find it at this day.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

France, under Philip I. and Lewis VI. with an Account of the firſt Cruſade.

CHAP. XI.

THE reign of Philip I. is not ſo remarkable for any thing as his marrying Bertrand de Montford, ducheſs of Anjou, while her huſband and his queen were both alive; for which he was excommunicated by Urban I. in the famous council of Clermont, where the firſt cruſade was preached for the recovery of the holy land; a circumſtance which naturally leads to ſpeak of that extravagant expedition, its cauſes, and conſequences.

Gregory VII. amongſt his other vaſt ideas, had formed the project of uniting the weſtern chriſtians againſt the mahometans, and recovering Paleſtine from the hands of infidels; and his quarrel with Henry IV. only could have obſtructed the progreſs of this undertaking; the work, however, was reſerved for a meaner inſtrument; for a man whoſe condition would excite no jealouſy, and whoſe head was weak as his imagination was warm. But before we mention this man, it will be neceſſary to ſay a few words of the ſtate of the eaſt at that time, and of the paſſion for pilgrimages which then prevailed in Europe.

We naturally view with veneration and delight, thoſe places which have been the reſidence

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of any illuſtrious perſonage, or the ſcene of any great tranſaction. Hence the enthuſiaſm and ſuperſtitious devotion with which the chriſtians, from the earlieſt ages of the church, were accuſtomed to viſit that country, where their religion had taken its riſe; and that city, where the meſſiah had died for the redemption of thoſe who believe in his name; but the chriſtians, in their pious journies, had the mortification to ſee the holy ſepulchre, and the other places made ſacred by the preſence of the ſaviour, fallen into the hands of infidels; and the pilgrims, who reſorted to them, expoſed to outrages of every kind from thoſe fierce barbarians. Every perſon who returned from Paleſtine, related the dangers which he had encountered in viſiting the holy city, and deſcribed, with exaggeration, the cruelty and vexations of the turks.

While the minds of men were thus rouſed, a fanatical monk, commonly known by the name of Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in Picardy, revived the project of Gregory VII. of leading all the forces of chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and driving them out of the holy land.

He made the pilgrimage of Jeruſalem, and was ſo deeply affected with the danger to which that act of piety expoſed chriſtians, that he ran from province to province, on his return, with a crucifix in his hand, exciting princes and people to this holy war.

Urban

CHAP. XI.

Urban II. entered into Peter's views, and ſummoned a council at Clermont, in Auvergne, where the greateſt prelates, nobles, and princes attended; and when the pope and the hermit had concluded their pathetic exhortations, the whole aſſembly, as if impelled by immediate holy inſpiration, exclaimed with one voice, "it is the "will of God!" words which were deemed ſo memorable, and believed to be ſo much the reſult of divine influence, that they were employed as the motto on the ſacred ſtandard, and as the ſignal of rendezvous and battle in all future exploits of the champions of the croſs; the ſymbol choſen by the devoted combatants, as the badge of union, and affixed to their right ſhoulder, whence their expedition got the name of a cruſade.

Perſons of all ranks flew to arms with the utmoſt ardor; the number of adventurers ſoon became ſo great, that their more experienced leaders, Hugh count of Vernandois, brother to the French king, Robert duke of Normandy, Raymond count Thouloufe, and Godfrey of Bouillon, became apprehenſive leſt the greatneſs of the armament ſhould defeat its purpoſe; ſo that they permitted an undiſciplined multitude, computed at three hundred thouſand men, to go before them, under the command of Peter the Hermit, Walter the Moneyleſs, and other wild fanatics.

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Peter and his army, before which he walked with ſandals on his feet, and a rope about his waſte, took the road to Conſtantinople, through Hungary and Bulgaria. Truſting that heaven, by ſupernatural means, would ſupply all their neceſſities, they made no proviſion for ſubſiſtence on their march; but they ſoon found themſelves obliged to obtain by plunder, what they had vainly expected from miracles; want is ingenious in ſuggeſting pretences for its ſupply: their fury firſt diſcharged itſelf on the jews;—as the ſoldiers of Jeſus Chriſt, they thought themſelves authorized to take revenge upon his murderers; and accordingly fell upon theſe unhappy people, and put them to the ſword without mercy; ſeizing their effects as lawful prize. In Bavaria alone, twelve thouſand jews were maſſacred, and many thouſands in the other provinces of Germany; but jews not being every where to be found, theſe pious robbers, who had taſted the ſweets of plunder, pillaged without diſtinction, till the inhabitants of the countries through which they paſſed, roſe, and cut them almoſt all off.

The Hermit, however, and the remnant of his army, conſiſting of twenty thouſand ſtarving wretches, at length reached Conſtantinople, where they were guilty of the greateſt diſorders, pillaging even the churches.

The

The Greek emperor, wiſhing to get rid of ſuch troubleſome gueſts, furniſhed them with veſſels to tranſport themſelves to the other ſide of the Boſphorus; and general Peter ſaw himſelf in the plains of Aſia, at the head of a chriſtian army, ready to give battle to the infidels. Soliman, ſultan of Nice, fell upon the diſorderly crowd, and ſlaughtered them without mercy. CHAP. XI.

In the mean time the more diſciplined armies arrived on the plains of Aſia, and advanced to the ſiege of Jeruſalem, the great object of their armament, and the acquiſition of which they conſidered as the conſummation of their labours. Theſe pious adventurers, from the incredible number of ſeven hundred thouſand, were reduced to twenty thouſand on their arrival at the holy city, which they took by aſſault, after a ſiege of five weeks, and put the garriſon and inhabitants to the ſword, without diſtinction. Arms protected not the brave, nor ſubmiſſion the timid; no age nor ſex were ſpared; infants periſhed by the ſame ſword that pierced their mothers. A. D. 1099.

The ſtreets of Jeruſalem were covered with heaps of ſlain; and the ſhrieks of agony and deſpair ſtill reſounded from every houſe, when theſe triumphant warriors, glutted with ſlaughter, threw aſide their arms, yet ſtreaming with blood, and advanced with naked feet and bended knees to the ſepulchre of the Prince of Peace; ſung

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anthems to that redeemer, who had purchaſed their ſalvation by his death, and while dead, to the calamities of their fellow-creatures, diſſolved in tears for the ſuffering of the Meſſiah. So inconſiſtent is human nature with itſelf, and ſo eaſily does the moſt effeminate ſuperſtition aſſociate both with the moſt heroic courage, and with the fierceſt barbarity.

About the ſame time that this great event happened in Aſia, Lewis VI. who ſucceeded his father Philip, was employed in humbling the nobility, who, more and more affecting independency, inſulted him every hour, plundered his ſubjects, and entirely cut off the communication between Paris and Orleans. Lewis demoliſhed their caſtles, and compelled them to make reſtitution to ſuch as they had pillaged; all which he performed in a manner ſo diſintereſted, and with ſo indiſputable a zeal for the public welfare, that he gained the affections of the virtuous part of the nobility, and the reverence of the people; while he reſtored order to the ſtate, and preſerved the monarchy from ſubverſion.

A. D. 1137. He died at Paris in the 60th year of his age, and the 30th of his reign.

CHAP.

CHAP. XII.

The German Empire and Italy, from the Death of Henry V. to the Election of Frederick I. ſurnamed Barbaroſſa.

AS Henry V. left no iſſue, the empire, being ſtill elective, was conferred by the votes of the electors, on a prince of the houſe of Saxony, named Lothario II. The new emperor marched into Italy, where eccleſiaſtical affairs, as uſual, were in much diſorder. Peter of Leon, grandſon of a wealthy jew was elected pope by a faction, and Innocent II. by another. Peter kept poſſeſſion of Rome by means of his army, whilſt his rival was obliged to retire to France, the common aſylum of diſtreſſed popes. Lothario eſpouſed the cauſe of Innocent, with whom he had an interview at Liege, accompanied him to Rome at the head of an army, and eſtabliſhed him in the papal chair. CHAP. XII. A. D. 1125.

On his way to Germany, Lothario was ſeized with a dangerous diſtemper, which carried him off near Trent, in the 12th year of his reign. Conrad, duke of Franconia, nephew to Henry V. was unanimouſly elected emperor on the death of Lothario; but the imperial throne was diſputed by Henry, duke of Bavaria, the name of whoſe A D. 1137.

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whoſe family was Guelph; hence thoſe who eſpouſe his party was called Guelphs, an appelation afterwards beſtowed on the enemies of the emperors. In this conteſt, the imperial army was commanded by Frederick duke of Suabia, the emperor's brother, who being born at the village Hieghibelin, gave to the ſoldier the name of Ghebelins, an epithet by which the imperial party was diſtinguiſhed in Italy, while the popes adherents grew famous under the Guelphs.

Guelph, and his principal followers were beſieged in the caſtle of Weinſburg; and having ſuſtained great loſs in a ſally, they were obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion.

While theſe things were tranſacting in Germany, new diſorders broke out in Italy. The people of Rome formed a deſign of re-eſtabliſhing the commonwealth, of retrieving the ſovereignty of that city, and aboliſhing the temporal dominion of the popes. Lucius II. marched againſt the rebels, and was killed at the foot of the capitol; but Eugenius III. found means to reduce them to reaſon, and preſerve the authority of the apoſtolic ſee.

This pope afterwards countenanced the ſecond cruſade againſt the ſaracens; in which the emperor and the king of France engaged, as we ſhall immediately relate. Conrad died ſoon after

after his return from the Eaſt, and his nephew, Frederick, ſurnamed Barbaroſſa, duke of Suabia, was raiſed to the imperial throne, by the unanimous voices of the princes of Italy and Germany. CHAP. XII.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIII.

France under Lewis VII. and the ſecond Cruſade.

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LEWIS VII. was no ſooner fixed on the throne of France, than he found himſelf engaged in one of thoſe civil wars which the feudal government rendered unavoidable; and having, in an expedition into Champagne, made himſelf maſter of Vitry, he cauſed the church to be ſet on fire, by which means thirteen hundred perſons, who had taken refuge there, periſhed in the flames. This cruel action made a deep impreſſion on the king's mind, and prepared the way for a ſecond cruſade.

A. D. 1140.

The chriſtians of the eaſt grew weaker every day in thoſe countries which they had conquered.

Pope Eugenius III. to whom the deputies of the eaſt had been ſent to ſolicit a new armament, pitched upon Bernard, as the inſtrument of this pious warfare. Bernard was learned for thoſe times; naturally eloquent, and irreproachable in his morals; he, therefore, ſoon found means to perſuade the king of France that there was no other method of expiating his guilt but by an expedition to the holy land. Queen Eleanor was likewiſe perſuaded by the ſaint to take the croſs; and the example of the royal pair was followed

lowed by all preſent, among whom were many of the chief nobility. From France, St. Bernard went to preach the cruſade in Germany; where, by the force of his irreſiſtable eloquence, he prevaile don the emperor, Conrad III. Frederick Barbaroſſa, afterwards emperor, and an infinite number of perſons of all ranks, to take the croſs, promiſing them, in the name of God, victory over the infidels. CHAP. XIII.

The germans took the field firſt, the french followed them; and the ſame exceſſes that had been committed by the ſoldiers of the firſt cruſade, were acted over again by theſe. After Conrad had paſſed the Boſphorus, he acted with that imprudence which ſeems inſeparable from ſuch kind of expeditions; inſtead of waiting for the king of France, when their numbers united would have inſured ſucceſs, he marched immediately into the middle of Aſia, where the ſultan of Iconium, a more experienced general, drew his heavy german cavalry among the rocks, and cut his army to pieces.

The king of France was not more ſucceſsful in his enterprize; he fell into the ſame ſnare that deceived the emperor; but Lewis met with a domeſtic misfortune that gave him more uneaſineſs than the loſs of his army. Queen Eleanor was ſuſpected of an amour with the prince of Antioch; and Lewis, more delicate than politic, annulled his marriage with her, ſoon after his

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his return. Eleanor eſpouſed his powerful vaſſal, Henry Plantagenet, duke of Normandy, and preſumptive heir to the crown of England; and by this alliance, France loſt the fine provinces of Guienne and Poitou, the hereditary poſſeſſion of the queen.

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CHAP. XIV.

England, from Henry I. to the Acceſſion of Henry II.

HENRY, as you have ſeen, left his dominions, by will, to his daughter Matilda; but the averſion of the feudal barons againſt female ſucceſſion, prevailed over their good faith, and prepared the way for the uſurpation of Stephen, ſon of the count of Blois, and grandſon to the conqueror. No ſooner, therefore, was the king known to be dead, than Stephen haſtened to London; and Hugh Bigod, ſteward of the houſehold, averring, upon oath, that the late king had expreſſed his intentions to make Stephen his heir, the archbiſhop anointed him without further ſcruple. CHAP. XIV. A. D. 1133.

Thus was Stephen made king by one of thoſe ſpeedy revolutions which ever mark the barbarity of a ſtate in which they are cuſtomary.

But the uſurper was not ſuffered to enjoy his throne in peace. Matilda landed in England, with a reſolution to depoſe him, and recover the crown; but after a few ineffectual ſtruggles was obliged to retire into Normandy. At length prince Henry, ſon to Matilda, Geoffrey Plantagent having reached his ſixteenth year, eſpouſed the heireſs of Guienne and Poitou, who had been married to Lewis VII. king of France, but whom

he

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he had divorced, as has been already obſerved, on account of her gallantries: this marriage, which brought Henry a great acceſſion of power, rendered him extremely formidable to his rival; and taking advantage of ſome diſcontents among the people, he invaded England. Stephen advanced with a ſuperior army to meet him, and a deciſive action was every day expected; when the great men on both ſides ſet about a negociation between the contending parties, and an accommodation was at laſt ſettled, by which it was agreed that Stephen ſhould poſſeſs the crown during his life, and that Henry, on Stephen's death, ſhould ſucceed him to the kingdom.

A. D. 1154.

The barons all ſwore to the obſervance of this treaty, and Henry immediately returned to Normandy. Stephen's death, which happened next year, prevented thoſe jealouſies and feuds which were likely to have enſued in ſo delicate a ſituation.

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CHAP. XV.

France and England, during the Reign of Henry II.

AS ſoon as Henry was informed of Stephen's death, he ſet out on his journey to England, and was received with the acclamations of all the people; who, harraſſed with ſupporting oppoſite pretenſions, were now rejoiced to ſee all parties united. CHAP. XV.

The firſt act of Henry's reign was to enlarge the privileges of the people, and render them more independent of the barons, by whom they had been long held in ſervitude, or in a ſtate of the moſt grievous oppreſſion.

He next caſt his eyes upon the church, where abuſes of every kind prevailed; rightly judging, that if the preſent opportunity was neglected, and the uſurpation of the clergy allowed to proceed, the crown muſt be in danger, from the prevailing ſuperſtition of the people, of falling under ſubjection to the mitre.

In order to remedy theſe evils, and that he might be ſecure againſt any oppoſition, Henry exalted Thomas à Becket, his chancellor, to the ſee of Canterbury, on whoſe compliance, he ſuppoſed, he could entirely depend; but never prince of ſo much penetration, as appeared in the iſſue, ſo little underſtood the character of his miniſter.

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niſter. Becket was no ſooner inſtalled in the ſee of Canterbury, which rendered him the ſecond perſon in the kingdom, than he ſecretly aſpired at being the firſt, in conſequence at leaſt, and totally altered his conduct; but though Henry found himſelf thus grievouſly miſtaken in the character of the perſon whom he had promoted to the primacy, he determined not to deſiſt from his former intention of retrenching clerical uſurpation; and an event ſoon occurred which gave him a plauſible pretence for putting his deſign in execution, and brought things to a criſis with the archbiſhop.

A man in holy orders debauched the daughter of a gentleman in Worceſterſhire, and then murdered the father, to prevent the effects of his reſentment. The general indignation againſt ſo enormous a crime made the king inſiſt that the aſſaſſin ſhould be delivered up to the civil magiſtrate.

But Becket inſiſted on the privileges of the church; and maintained that no greater puniſhment could be inflicted on him than degradation.

Henry laid hold of ſo favourable a cauſe to puniſh the clergy with reſpect to their uſurpations; and to determine at once thoſe controverſies which daily multiplied between the civil and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, he ſummoned an aſſembly of all the prelates of England, and put to them this conciſe and deciſive queſtion: Whether

Whether or not they were willing to ſubmit to the ancient laws and cuſtoms of the kingdom? The biſhops anſwered equivocally; and the king left the aſſembly with marks of the higheſt indignation: they were terrified, and gave a general promiſe of obſerving the ancient cuſtoms. A declaration in general terms was not ſufficient for Henry; he wanted to define exactly the limits between the rival powers. For this purpoſe, he ſummoned, at Clarendon, a general council of the biſhops and nobles, to whom he ſubmitted that great and important queſtion; the barons were all gained to the king's party, and the biſhops were over-awed by the general combination againſt them. CHAP. XV.

The following laws, among others, commonly called the conſtitution of Clarendon, were voted without oppoſition: "That no appeals in ſpiri-" tual cauſes ſhould be carried to the holy ſee, " nor any clergyman ſuffered to depart the king-" dom, unleſs with the king's permiſſion; that " laymen ſhould not be accuſed in ſpiritual " courts, except by legal and reputable wit-" neſſes; and laſtly, that churchmen, accuſed of " any crime, ſhould be tried in civil courts." A. D. 1164. Henry thinking he now finally prevailed in this great enterpriſe, ſent the conſtitution to the pope to be ratified; but Alexander III. who plainly ſaw they were calculated to eſtabliſh the independency of England on the holy ſee, abrogated,

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annulled, and rejected them; and when Becket found he might hope for a ſupport in oppoſition, he expreſſed the deepeſt ſorrow for his criminal compliance.

Henry, however, convinced every one would obey his will, except the man whom he had lifted into power, reſolved both to humble the churches, and make the prelate feel the weight of his indignation; but Becket, to avoid ſuch extremities, retired beyond ſea, and put himſelf under the protection of the pope, and the king of France. Lewis, jealous of the riſing greatneſs of Henry, was glad of any opportunity to give him diſturbance in his government. He pretended to pity extremely the condition of the exiled primate, who filled all Europe with exclamations againſt the violence which he ſuffered. At length, after a number of conferences, all difficulties between the parties were adjuſted, and Becket was permitted to return, on conditions both honourable and advantageous; a certain proof how much Henry dreaded the thunder of the church.

This accommodation with Becket did not even procure the king that temporary tranquility which he hoped from it: inſtead of being taught moderation, by a ſix years exile, the primate was only animated by a ſpirit of revenge. Elated by the victory which he had obtained over his ſovereign, he ſet no bounds to his arrogance.

gance. On his arrival in England he ſuſpended the archbiſhop of York, and excommunicated two biſhops, becauſe they had aſſiſted at the coronation of prince Henry, during the abſence of the primate. The degraded prelates waited upon the king in Normandy, where he then reſided, and complained to him of the violent proceedings of Becket. Henry, ſenſible that his whole plan of operations was overturned, was thrown into the moſt violent agitation. "Will my ſervants," exclaimed he, "ſtill leave me expoſed to the inſolence of this ungrateful imperious prieſt?" Theſe words ſeemed a call for vengeance; and four gentlemen of the king's houſehold, communicating their thoughts to each other, and ſwearing to revenge their ſovereign's quarrel, ſecretly withdrew from court, and made the beſt of their way to England. On their arrival in Canterbury, they found the archbiſhop in the church of St. Benedict, and murdered him while he was hearing maſs. Henry was no ſooner informed of the primate's murder, than he was filled with the utmoſt conſternation. Excommunications he forſaw would be armed with double force. However, as ſoon as he recovered in any degree his tone of mind, he diſpatched a ſolemn embaſſy to Rome, maintaining his innocence, and offering to ſubmit the whole affair to the deciſion of the holy ſee. The pope, flattered by ſo much condeſcenſion, forbore to

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A. D. 1170.

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proceed to extremities, more eſpecially as he was ſenſible that he could reap more advantage from moderation than from violence.

Henry finding he was in no immediate danger from the thunder of the vatican, undertook the conqueſt of Ireland; a deſign which he had long projected, and for which he had obtained a bull from pope Adrian IV.

A few centuries after the chriſtian æra, when the ravages of the goths and vandals had extinguiſhed elſewhere the means of knowledge, and involved the other nations of Europe in the thickeſt darkneſs, Ireland, like Athens of old, was reſorted to by foreigners, as the only ſurviving repoſitory of learning. At that period, ſeminaries of knowledge were erected in ſeveral parts of the kingdom; learning was encouraged and cultivated with a zeal almoſt approaching to enthuſiaſm; but, it is equally true, that in time they fell from theſe advantages; and their degenerating poſterity, at the time we are now ſpeaking of, were wrapt in the darkeſt barbarity. This may be imputed to the frequent invaſions of the danes, who over-ran the whole country, and every where ſpread their ravages, and confirmed their authority. The natives, kept in the ſtricteſt bondage, grew every day more ignorant; and when at laſt they roſe up on their conquerors, and totally expelled them the iſland, they wanted inſtructors

inſtructors to reſtore them to their former attainments. CHAP. XV.

This iſland, at the time Henry invaded it, was divided into five principalities: namely, Leinſter, Meath, Munſter, Ulſter, and Connaught; each governed by its reſpective monarch, who waged perpetual hoſtilities againſt each other. It is not much to be wondered at, that the king, in a progreſs which he made through the country, had little other occupation than to receive the homage of his new ſubjects. A. D. 1172.

Henry ſeemed now to to have reached the pinnacle of human grandeur and felicity: his dangerous controverſy with the church was at an end; and he appeared equally happy in his domeſtic ſituation, and his political government. But this tranquility was of ſhort duration. Prince Henry, at the inſtigation of Lewis VII. his father-in-law, inſiſted that the king ſhould reſign to him, either the kingdom of England, or the duchy of Normandy. His two younger brothers, Geoffrey and Richard, alſo leagued with the court of France; and Europe ſaw with aſtoniſhment, the beſt and moſt indulgent of parents at war with his own family. However, theſe quarrels were in ſome meaſure quieted by the death of young Henry, and alſo his brother Geoffrey. But Philip, king of France, who ſucceeded his father Lewis, jealous of Henry's greatneſs, entered into a private confederacy with

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prince Richard, now heir to the crown of England, and perſuaded him to ſeek preſent power and independency at the expence of filial duty.

But the mortification which Henry received from this circumſtance, was nothing in compariſon of what he experienced on hearing his favourite ſon John had joined his brother. Overloaded with cares and ſorrows, and robbed of his laſt domeſtic comfort, this unhappy father broke out into expreſſions of the utmoſt deſpair: he curſed the day of his birth, and beſtowed on his ungrateful children a malediction, which he could never be brought to retract: and this fatal diſcovery having quite broke his ſpirit, threw him into a fever, of which he ſoon after expired, at the caſtle of Chinon, in Normandy.

A. D. 1189.

Henry poſſeſſed every accompliſhment, both of body and mind, which can make a man either eſtimable or amiable. He left only two legitemate ſons, Richard, who ſucceeded him, and John commonly denominated Lackland, becauſe he inherited no territory.

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CHAP. XVI.

The German Empire, and Italy, under Frederick, ſurnamed Barbaroſſa.

CHAP. XVI.

FREDERICK, a prince of great courage and capacity, was elected emperor on the death of Conrad III Soon after his election he marched into Italy, in order to compoſe the diſturbances of that country, and be crowned by the pope, in imitation of his predeceſſors.

A. D. 1152.

Adrian IV. who then filled St. Peter's chair, was an engliſhman, and the ſon of a beggar, inſiſted on the roman ceremonial. Frederick looked upon this ceremony as an inſult, and refuſed to ſubmit to it: the kiſſing the pope's feet, which he knew to be the eſtabliſhed cuſtom, did not hurt the emperor's pride; but he could not bear that of holding the bridle and ſtirrup. At length Frederick digeſted theſe two affronts, which he conſtrued only as empty marks of chriſtian humility; but which the papal court received as real proofs of ſubjection.

The citizens of Rome ſent him a deputation, demanding a reſtoration of their ancient form of government, and offering to ſtipulate with him for imperial dignity. "Charlemagne and "Otho conquered you by their valour," replied Frederick, "and I am your maſter by "right

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" right of ſucceſſion: it is my right to pre-
" ſcribe laws, and yours to receive them."

The intrepid emperor had not only the pope to ſubdue, who diſputed the empire; Rome, which refuſed to acknowledge a maſter; and many other cities of Italy that aſſerted their independency; he had at the ſame time the bohemians to humble, who had mutinied againſt him; and alſo the poles, with whom he was at war; yet all this he effected.

He conquered Poland, and erected it into a tributary kingdom; he quelled the tumults in Bohemia, and he ſecured the fidelity of the German princes, by rendering himſelf formidable to foreign nations. After this, he was obliged to fly back to Italy, where every thing was in confuſion. Adrian IV. dying, two oppoſite factions tumultuouſly elected two perſons, known by the name of Victor II. and Alexander III.

The emperor's allies naturally acknowledged the pope choſen by him; and thoſe princes who were jealous of the emperor, acknowledged the other, Victor II. Frederick's pope had Germany, Bohemia, and one half of Italy, on his ſide; the reſt ſubmitted to Alexander III. On the death of Victor, the emperor cauſed another pope to be elected; who alſo dying in a ſhort time, a third was nominated by Frederick: thus the flames of civil diſcord continued to ſpread. The emperor was defeated at ſea by the Venetians, and his

A. D. 1176.

eldeſt

eldeſt ſon Henry, who commanded his fleet, fell into the hands of the enemy. Pope Alexander, in honour of this victory, ſailed out into the open ſea, accompanied by the whole ſenate; and after having pronounced a thouſand benedictions on that element, threw into it a ring as a mark of his affection and gratitude. Hence the origin of that ceremony which is annually performed by the Venetians, under the notion of eſpouſing the Adriatic. CHAP. XVI.

In conſequence of theſe misfortunes Frederick was diſpoſed to an accommodation with Alexander, who received the propoſal with great joy, and Venice had the honour of being the place of reconciliation: there the emperor put an end to the diſpute, by acknowledging the pope, kiſſing his feet, and holding his ſtirrup while he mounted his mule. A. D. 1177.

The affairs of Italy being thus ſettled, Frederick ſet out for the holy wars, where he loſt his life, by bathing in the Cydnus; being ſeized with the ſame diſorder as that which Alexander the Great had formerly with great difficulty recovered from, where he plunged himſelf, while in a ſweat, into that river. A. D. 1190.

Thus periſhed Frederick I. in the ſixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-eighth of his reign: a prince of an enterpriſing ſpirit, and great capacity, who had the peace of his country always at heart, and who ſupported the dignity of the empire with equal courage and reputation.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVII.

France and England, from the Death of Henry II. to the Reign of Edward I.

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THE death of Henry II. was an event eſteemed equally fortunate by his ſon Richard, and Philip Auguſtus. Philip loſt a dangerous enemy, and Richard got poſſeſſion of that crown which he had ſo eagerly purſued; both ſeemed to conſider the recovery of the holy land as the ſole purpoſe of their government. The reiterated calamities attending the cruſades, taught the kings of France and England the neceſſity of trying another road than by Conſtantinople; they determined to conduct their armies by ſea, and to carry proviſions along with them. The two monarchs put to ſea together; and both nearly about the ſame time were obliged, by diſtreſs of weather, to take ſhelter in Meſſina, in Sicily, where they were detained during the winter; but ſome trifling diſputes which had happened there between them, laid the foundation of a rancor and jealouſy which never after entirely ſubſided.

A. D. 1190.

After leaving Sicily, the engliſh fleet met with a furious tempeſt, which drove it on the coaſt of Cyprus, and was later of arriving than the French; but the Engliſh came in time to partake of the glory of the ſiege of Ptolemais, which laſted two years,

years, and was at length taken after the loſs of three hundred thouſand men. CHAP. XVII.

Philip being diſguſted with the aſcendant aſſumed, and acquired by Richard, returned to France, when, by his intrigues, he ſeduced prince John, the king's brother, from his allegiance; but a truce being concluded with Saladin, and Richard receiving intelligence of the intrigues of his brother John and the king of France, reſolved to return immediately to Europe, where his preſence was abſolutely neceſſary. In paſſing through Germany, in diſguiſe, he was diſcovered, and thrown into priſon by Leopold duke of Auſtria, and ſold to the emperor Henry VI. who had taken ſome offence at Richard's behaviour in Sicily, and was glad to have him in his power. However, A. D. 1193. on paying three hundred thouſand pounds, the king of England was reſtored to his freedom.

The joy of the engliſh was extreme on the appearance of their king, who had acquired ſo much glory, and had ſpread the reputation of their name to the fartheſt part of the eaſt. After receiving the ceremony of his coronation, Richard paſſed over with an army into Normandy, impatient to make war upon Philip, and revenge himſelf of the many injuries which he received from that monarch; but the taking of a caſtle, or the ſurprize of a ſtraggling party, comprehend the whole of this expedition; peace was at length concluded between England and France, when Richard was unfortunately

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A. D. 1199.

unfortunately ſlain by an arrow before an inconſiderable caſtle, which he beſieged in hopes of taking from one of his vaſſals a great maſs of gold which had been found in the earth.

The moſt ſhining part of Richard's character was his military talents; no man, even in that romantic age, carried perſonal courage and intrepidity to a greater height; and this quality obtained him the appellation of Cœur de Leon, or the lion hearted.

As he left no iſſue behind him, he was ſucceeded by his brother John.

The ſucceſſion was diſputed by Arthur, duke of Brittany, ſon of Geoffrey, the elder brother of John. The king of France, whoſe daughter he had eſpouſed, aſſiſted him; and every thing promiſed ſucceſs, when Arthur was taken priſoner by his uncle John, and inhumanly murdered: the whole world was ſtruck with horror at this barbarity, and he was, from that moment, deteſted by his ſubjects, both at home and abroad. The Britons waged implacable war againſt him, in order to revenge the murder of their duke; and carried their complaints before the french monarch, as ſuperior lord, demanding juſtice. Philip received their application with pleaſure; he ſummoned John to ſtand his trial before him and his peers; and on his non appearance, he was declared guilty of felony and parricide; and all his foreign dominions were adjudged forfeited to the crown of France.

France. Philip taking advantage of the defection of John's ſubjects, which rendered every enterpriſe eaſy againſt him, re-united Normandy to the crown of France, and ſucceſſively reduced Anjou, Maine, and part of Poitou, under his dominions. To complete his misfortunes, John embroiled himſelf with the court of Rome about an archbiſhop of Canterbury, whom pope Innocent III. wanted to nominate of his own authority, in oppoſition to the laws of the country. This pope, under whom the holy ſee became formidable, laid the kingdom under an interdict, and forbad John's ſubjects from paying him any obedience for the future. CHAP. XVII.

This eccleſiaſtical thunderbolt was, at this time, truly terrible; becauſe the pope put it into the hands of Philip Auguſtus, to whom he made over the kingdom of England in perpetual inheritance. Philip employed a whole year in building a fleet, and raiſing the fineſt army that had ever been in France. John, on the other hand, made a laſt effort, and found means through that ſpirit of emulation which had ſo long ſubſiſted between the natives of France and England, to raiſe an army of ſixty thouſand men. A. D. 1213.

All Europe was held in expectation of a deciſive action between the two kings, when the pope artfully tricked them both, and took that to himſelf which he had pretended to beſtow on Philip. This extraordinary tranſaction was negociated

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gociated by Pandolph, the pope's legate to France and England. In his way through France he obſerved the great armament of Philip, and highly commended his zeal and diligence; and on his arrival in Dover, he had a conference with John, to whom he magnified the number of the enemy, the diſaffection of his own ſubjects, intimating, that his only reſource was to put himſelf under the protection of the holy ſee. John conſented to this propoſal; ſwore to ſubmit himſelf, and do homage to the pope as his liege lord and ſuperior.

During this ſhameful negociation Philip waited impatiently at Bologne for the legate's return, in order to put to ſea; the legate at length returned, and the king was informed that he was no longer permitted to attack England, which was become a fief of the church of Rome, and its king a vaſſal of the holy ſee.

Philip was enraged at this intelligence; he ſwore he would no longer be the dupe of ſuch hypocritical pretences; and indeed would not have deſiſted from his enterprize, but the emperor, Otho IV. entered into an alliance with his uncle, the king of England, in order to oppoſe the deſigns of France, now become formidable to the reſt of Europe. With this view he put himſelf at the head of a prodigious army; and the French monarch ſeemed in danger of being cruſhed for having accepted of a preſent made him by the pope. Philip, however, advanced undiſmayed,

to

to meet his enemies with an army of twenty thou- CHAP. XVII.
ſand men, commanded by the chief nobility in France.

The emperor Otho, on the other ſide, had with A. D. 1214.
him ſeven or eight german princes, and a force ſuperior to that of Philip. The two armies met near the village of Bovines, between Liſle and Tournay; where the allies were totally routed, and thirty thouſand germans are ſaid to be ſlain.

This victory eſtabliſhed for ever the glory of Philip, and gave full ſecurity to his dominion. John could therefore hope for nothing further, than henceforth to rule his own kingdom in peace. But the moſt grievous ſcene of this prince's misfortunes ſtill awaited him; he was doomed to humble himſelf before his own ſubjects: the barons entered into a confederacy, and formally demanded a reſtoration of their privileges; and that their cauſe might wear the greater appearance of juſtice, they alſo included thoſe of the clergy and people: they took up arms to enforce their requeſt: they laid waſte the royal domains; and John, after having employed a variety of expedients, in order to divert the blow aimed at the prerogatives of the crown, was obliged to lower himſelf, and treat with his ſubjects.

A conference was held between the king and the barons at Runnemede, a ſpot ever ſince deſervedly celebrated as the birth-place of engliſh

CHAP. XVII. A. D. 1215.

liberty. There John ſigned and ſealed the famous magna charta, or great charter, which either granted or ſecured very important privileges to every order of men in the kingdom; to the barons, to the clergy, and to the people; but John only diſſembled, till he ſhould find a favourable opportunity to revoke all his conceſſions; and in order to facilitate ſuch an event, he ſecretly ſent abroad his emiſſaries to enliſt foreign ſoldiers, and to invite the rapacious brabancons into his ſervice, by the proſpect of ſharing the ſpoils of England. He alſo diſpatched a meſſenger to Rome, to lay the great charter before the pope; who, conſidering himſelf a ſuperior lord of the kingdom, was incenſed at the temerity of the barons, and iſſued out a bull annulling the charter, and denouncing a general ſentence of excommunication againſt every one who ſhould perſevere in maintaining ſuch treaſonable pretenſions.

John now took off the maſk; he recalled all that he had done; and as his foreign mercenaries arrived along with the bull, he expected nothing but univerſal ſubmiſſion. In this deſperate extremity, the barons had recourſe to a remedy no leſs ſo; they offered to acknowledge as their ſovereign prince Lewis, eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France; the temptation was too great to be reſiſted by a prince of Philip's ambition.

He ſent over to the relief of the barons a body of forces, with his ſon Lewis at their head: John

was

was deſerted by his foreign troops, and ſometime a wanderer from town to town, when death put an end to his troubles and his crimes, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the eighteenth of his reign. CHAP. XVII. A. D. 1216.

John was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry III. but nine years old at his father's death; and for once a minority proved of ſingular ſervice to England. The earl of Pembroke, who was choſen protector, had a mighty influence on the barons; moſt of them ſecretly negociated with him, and returned to their duty: Lewis, whoſe troops were defeated, and all his favourite deſigns blaſted, was glad to make his eſcape from a country where every thing was become hoſtile to him.

Henry III. when he came of age, proving a weak and contemptible prince, England was again involved in civil broils, which it would be equally uſeleſs and impertinent to relate, as they were neither followed during many years by any event of importance to ſociety, nor attended with any circumſtances which can throw light upon the human character;—their cauſes and conſequences were alike inſignificant.

The factious and turbulent barons demanded an extenſion of their privileges; and the earl of Leiceſter, a man of great talents and boundleſs ambition, was at the head of the mal contents: he had married Eleanor, the king's ſiſter, and hoped to wreſt the ſceptre from the feeble and A. D. 1258.

CHAP. XVII.

irreſolute hand that held it. He repreſented to his aſſociates that aſſembled at Oxford, the neceſſity of reforming the ſtate, and of putting the execution of the laws into other hands; thoſe which hitherto have been found, from repeated experience, ſo unfit for ſo important a charge; and their firſt ſtate ſeemed well calculated for the end which they profeſſed to have in view. They ordered that four knights ſhould be choſen by each county; that they ſhould make inquiry into grievances which their neighbourhood had reaſon to complain of, and ſhould attend the enſuing parliament, in order to give information to that aſſembly of the ſtate of their particular counties: thus was a new order of men introduced into the national aſſembly, and our conſtitution approached daily nearer to its preſent form.

The earl of Leiceſter and his aſſociates, inſtead of continuing in the ſame popular courſe, viſibly employed their power for the aggrandizement of themſelves and families: the breach of truſt was apparent to all the world; every order of men felt it, and murmured againſt it; and the pope, in order to gain the favour of the nation, abſolved the king and all his ſubjects from the oath they had taken to obſerve the proviſions of Oxford. As ſoon as Henry received the pope's abſolution from his oath, he reſumed the government; but the haughty barons could not peaceably reſign that uncontrouled power which they had

had ſo long enjoyed, and civil war was renewed in all its horrors. After ſeveral fruitleſs negociations, the collected force of the two parties met near Lewes in Suſſex, where the royal army was unhappily defeated, and the king and prince Edward made priſoners. No ſooner had Leiceſter obtained this victory, than he ſhewed a deſire of cruſhing his rivals among the barons, and acting as ſole maſter. The royaliſts ſeized the favourable conjuncture, and flew to arms; prince Edward made his eſcape; and the joy of this young hero's appearance, together with the oppreſſions under which the nation laboured, ſoon procured him a force which Leiceſter was unable to reſiſt. A battle was fought near Eveſham, where Leiceſter was ſlain, and his army totally routed. CHAP. XVII. A. D. 1265.

Henry, at laſt, overcome by the cares of government, and the infirmities of age, expired in the ſixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-ſixth of his reign; the longeſt in the engliſh annals. He was a prince more adapted for private than public life; his eaſe, ſimplicity, and good nature, would have ſecured that happineſs in a lower ſtation, of which they deprived him on a throne.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVIII.

France, from the Reign of Philip Auguſtus, to the End of the Reign of Lewis IX. or St. Lewis.

CHAP. XVIII.

PHILIP Auguſtus died ſoon after the return of his ſon Lewis from England, and left the kingdom of France twice as large as he had received it. Lewis VIII. however, did not encreaſe the monarchy. His ſhort reign was chiefly ſpent in a cruſade againſt the Albegenſes, in the proſecution of which he died. He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Lewis IX. commonly called St. Lewis, who no ſooner came of age than he was univerſally acknowledged to be the greateſt prince in Europe. His character is perhaps the moſt ſingular in the annals of hiſtory. To the mean and abject ſuperſtition of a monk, he united all the courage and magnanimity of a hero. So far from taking advantage of the diviſions of the engliſh, during the reign of Henry III. or attempting to expel thoſe dangerous rivals from his provinces, which they ſtill poſſeſſed in France, he entertained many ſcruples with regard to the ſentence of attainder pronounced againſt the king's father; and had not his biſhops, it is ſaid, perſuaded him that John was juſtly puniſhed for his barbarity and felony, he

A. D. 1226.

he would have reſtored all the conqueſts made by Philip Auguſtus. But his humane heart became a prey to the barbarous devotion of the times. Being ſeized with a dangerous illneſs, which deprived him of his ſenſes, his heated imagination took fire, and he thought he heard a voice commanding him to ſhed the blood of infidels. He accordingly made a vow, as ſoon as he recovered, to engage in a new cruſade. He ſpent four years in making preparations, and at length ſet ſail. Inſtead of proceeding immediately for Paleſtine, he made a deſcent upon Egypt, at the head of ſixty thouſand men, the flower of his kingdom. Yet this cruſade, like all the reſt, terminated in ſorrow and diſappointment. One half of theſe fine troops fell a prey to ſickneſs and debauchery, and the other was defeated at Maſſoura, where Lewis beheld his brother Robert killed by his ſide, and himſelf taken priſoner, together with his two brothers, the counts of Anjou and Poctiers, with all his nobility. CHAP. XVIII. A. D. 1249.

A treaty was concluded by the ſoldan, by which the king and the other priſoners were reſtored to their liberty, on payment of a thouſand marks of gold. The affairs of France were in much confuſion, which determined Lewis at laſt to return to Europe; but it was only to prepare for a new cruſade. He hoped to make a convert of the king of Tunis, and for that pur-

CHAP. XVIII.

poſe landed on the coaſt of Africa, ſword in hand, at the head of his troops. The french army was ſeized with an epidemical diſtemper, of which Lewis himſelf died in the 56th year of his age.

A. D. 1271.

The moſt blameable circumſtance of this great monarch's conduct, is his approbation of the treaty between his brother and the pope, relative to Sicily. After the death of the emperor Frederick II. the pope ſeized upon this kingdom, and offered it to the count of Anjou: he accepted it; and Lewis permitted a cruſade to be preached againſt Mainfroy, who had now actually uſurped the Sicilian throne, in prejudice to his nephew Conradine. The count of Anjou marched into Italy at the head of a numerous army. Mainfroy was defeated and ſlain, and Conradine appeared in vindication of his native right: he alſo was routed and taken priſoner, together with his uncle, the duke of Auſtria, and both were executed at Naples.

CHAP. XIX.

The German Empire, and Italy, from the Acceſſion of Henry IV. to the Election of Rodolph of Hapſburg; with ſome Account of the Cruſades.

HENRY VI. received almoſt at the ſame time intelligence of the death of his father, and of his brother-in-law, William, king of Naples and Sicily, to whoſe dominions he was heir, in right of his wife. Tancred, a baſtard of that line, had been acknowledged king by the people, and the ſee of Rome: the diſpute then was, who ſhould wear the crown,—Tancred, who poſſeſſed it by right of election; or Henry, who claimed it in right of his wife? This was to be decided by arms; and the ſicilians in vain, after the death of Tancred, proclaimed his young ſon. Henry's fortune prevailed. He ordered the infant king to be caſtrated; to have his eyes put out; and be confined in a dungeon; his mother and ſiſters were ſhut up in a convent, and all the friends of this unhappy family were put to death, by the moſt excruciating tortures. But his cruelty proved his deſtruction; for, it is ſaid, that his own wife, Conſtantia, whoſe family he had ſo barbarouſly exterminated, conſpired againſt the tyrant, and took him off by poiſon. CHAP. XIX. A. D. 1197.

Upon

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Upon the death of Henry VI. the empire of Germany was divided. His ſon, Frederick II. was but an infant when he was elected emperor by a faction, who gave the title of king of the romans to his uncle Philip. Another party choſe Otho of Saxony; who was ſupported by Innocent III. and the king of England, Otho's uncle. This junction naturally inclined the king of France to the ſide of his rival faction; claſhed with faction, and nothing was beheld on all hands but the horrors and the miſeries of civil war.

At length Philip prevailed, and Otho, obliged to abandon Germany, took refuge in England. He, however, returned ſoon after to Germany; and finding his party ſtill conſiderable, entered into an alliance with his uncle John, king of England, againſt Philip Auguſtus, king of France. The unfortunate battle of Bouvines, as we have already ſeen, completed the fate of Otho.

A. D. 1213.

Frederick II. now ſeventeen years of age, was univerſally acknowledged emperor; and in order to preſerve the favour of the pope, he made a vow to go in perſon to the Holy Land.

About this time pope Innocent died, and was ſucceeded by Honorius III. who expreſſed great eagerneſs in forwarding the cruſade. The emperor excuſed himſelf from the performance of

of his vow until he ſhould have regulated the affairs of Italy; and almoſt all the other european monarchs were detained at home by domeſtic diſturbances: but an infinite number of private noblemen and their vaſſals took the croſs. Theſe adventurers arrived at Ptolemais; and it was reſolved in a council of war to beſiege Damietta, in Egypt; which was accordingly inveſted by ſea and land, and taken after a ſiege of eighteen months. However, the fruits of the victory were entirely blaſted by the preſumption of Albano, a ſpaniſh monk, who pretended, as legate of the holy ſee, and repreſentative of the pope, he had an inconteſtible right to the ſupreme command, which he accordingly took upon himſelf, and brought the army of the croſs between two branches of the Nile, when that river, which fertilizes, and defends Egypt, began to run over its banks. The ſoldan, informed of their ſituation, overflowed the chriſtian camp, by opening the ſluices; ſo that the legate now ſaw himſelf and his troops in the ſame extremity in which the Egyptians, under Pharaoh, are deſcribed, when they beheld the ſea ready to ruſh in upon them. Damietta was reſtored, and the leaders of the cruſade were obliged to conclude a diſhonourable treaty, by which they bound themſelves not to ſerve againſt the ſoldan for eight years. CHAP. XIX. A. D. 1221.

Gregory

CHAP. XXI.

Gregory IX. who ſucceeded Honorius in the papal chair, being incenſed at the loſs of Damietta, wrote a ſevere letter to the emperor, taxing him with having ſacrificed the intereſts of chriſtianity, by delaying ſo long the performance of his vow, and threatening him with immediate excommunication, if he did not inſtantly depart with an army into Aſia. Frederick, exaſperated at ſuch inſolence, ravaged the patrimony of St. Peter, and was actually excommunicated. The animoſity between the guelphs and gebellines revived; the pope was obliged to quit Rome; and Italy became a ſcene of war and deſolation.

Frederick, in order to remove the cauſe of all theſe troubles, and gratify the prejudices of a ſuperſtitious age, reſolved to perform his vow; and he accordingly embarked for the holy land, where he ſucceeded better than any perſon who had gone before him. He concluded a treaty with the ſoldan of Egypt, and maſter of Syria, by which the end of his expedition ſeemed fully anſwered. The ſoldan ceded to him Jeruſalem, and its territory, Tyre, Sydon, and the neighbouring countries; after which, the emperor prudently returned to Italy, where his preſence was much wanted.

A. D. 1280.

Frederick's reign, after his return from the eaſt, was one continued quarrel with the popes. The cities of Lombardy revolted at the inſtigation of Gregory

Gregory IX. who alſo excited the emperor's ſon, Henry, to rebel againſt his father. The rebellion was ſuppreſſed; the prince was confined, and the emperor obtained a complete victory over the aſſociated towns. Innocent IV. who ſucceeded Gregory, purſued the ſame line of conduct; not being able to obtain from Frederick his exorbitant demands, he fled into France, aſſembled a general council at Lyons, and depoſed the emperor; and ordered the electors to chooſe another, reſerving to himſelf the diſpoſal of Sicily. CHAP. XIX.

Henry, the emperor's eldeſt ſon, dying ſoon after his confinement, the empire was declared vacant by the pope; and the german biſhops, for none of the princes were preſent at the inſtigation of his holineſs, proceeded to the election of a new emperor; and they choſe Henry, langrave of Thuringia, ſtiled the king of prieſts; but Henry dying ſoon after, the ſame prelates took the liberty to elect William count of Holland, who bore the ſame contemptuous title of his predeceſſor.

Fortune, which had hitherto favoured Frederick, ſeemed now to deſert him. He was defeated before Parma, which he had long beſieged, and was obliged to retire to Naples, where he died of a fever, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. A. D. 1250.

After the death of Frederick, a variety of candidates appeared for the empire, and ſeveral were elected

CHAP. XX. elected by different factions; but no emperor was properly acknowledged, till the year 1273, when Rodolph, count of Hapſburgh, was unanimouſly raiſed to the vacant throne.

CHAP.

CHAP. XX.

Spain, to the End of the Thirteenth Century.

CHAP. XX.

WE left Spain, towards the middle of the eleventh century, diſmembered by the moors and chriſtians, and both a prey to civil wars. About that time, Don Roderigo, ſurnamed the Cid, drove the moors out of the kingdom of Toledo and Valentia. Few kings in Spain were at that time ſo powerful as he; yet he never aſſumed the regal title, but continued faithful to his maſter Alphonſo, king of old Caſtile. He governed Valentia, however, with all the authority of a ſovereign, receiving ambaſſadors, and being treated with the higheſt reſpect by all nations. After his death, the kings of Caſtile and Arragon continued their wars againſt the moors; and Spain was more drenched in blood than ever, and more deſolated.

Alphonſo, ſurnamed the Battle Giver, king of Navarre and Arragon, took Saragoſſa from the moors; which city became the capital of the kingdom of Arragon, and never again returned under the dominion of the infidels. Alphonſo, count of Portugal, after obtaining a victory over the moors, took Liſbon from them, and cauſed himſelf to be crowned king of Portugal. A very

few

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few efforts would now have been ſufficient to have driven the moors entirely out of Spain; but for that purpoſe it was neceſſary, that the ſpaniſh chriſtians ſhould be united among themſelves; whereas, they were perpetually at war with one another. They united, however, at length, from a ſenſe of common danger, and alſo implored the aſſiſtance of the other chriſtian princes of Europe.

Mahomet Ben Joſeph, miramolin of Africa, having croſſed the ſea with an army of near one hundred thouſand men, and being joined by the moors of Andaluſia, aſſured himſelf of making an entire conqueſt of Spain. The rumour of this great armament rouſed the attention of the whole European continent. Many adventurers came from all parts; to theſe the kings of Caſtile, Arragon, and Navarre, united their forces. The kingdom of Portugal alſo furniſhed a body of troops; and the chriſtian and mahometan armies met in the defiles of the black Mountain, or Sierra Morena, on the borders of Andaluſia, and in the province of Toledo. The archbiſhop of Toledo was by the ſide of the king of Caſtile, Alphonſo the Noble, and carried the croſs at the head of the troops. Miramolin had in one hand a ſabre, and in the other the alcoran. The battle was long and obſtinate, but at length the chriſtians prevailed; and the ſixteenth of July, the day on which the victory was gained, is ſtill cele-

A. D. 1212.

celebrated in Toledo. This ſeemed a period marked out for the glory of Spain, and the expulſions of the moors. Ferdinand III. took from the infidels the famous city of Cordova, the reſidence of the firſt mooriſh kings. He alſo ſubdued the province of Murcia, and made himſelf maſter of Seville, the moſt opulent city belonging to the moors. Death at length put an end to his conqueſts; and if divine honours are due to thoſe who have been the deliverers of their country, Spain juſtly reverences the name of Ferdinand III. Alphonſo, ſurnamed the Aſtronomer, or the Wiſe, ſucceeded his father, Ferdinand. This prince rivalled the arabians in the ſciences, and the univerſity of Salemanca produced no one equal to him. His collection of laws, called *las partidas*, ſtill continue to form the principal baſis of their juriſprudence. In his old age, he ſaw his ſon, Sancho, rebel againſt him; and was reduced to the diſagreeable neceſſity of leaguing with the moors againſt his own blood, and his chriſtian ſubjects. The rebels were overcome; but the good old king died before he had time to enjoy the fruits of his victory. The unnatural Sancho ſucceeded to the crown; he, however, reigned happily; and his ſon, Ferdinand IV. took Gibraltar from the moors.

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A. D. 1303.

CHAP. XXI.

England, during the Reign of Edward I.

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EDWARD I. had reached Sicily in his return from the holy land, when he received intelligence of the death of his father, Henry III. and immediately proceeded homeward. As ſoon as he arrived in England, he applied himſelf aſſiduouſly to the correcting of thoſe diſorders which the civil commotions and looſe adminiſtration of his father, had introduced into every part of his government. His policy, though ſevere, was equally generous and prudent; by an exact diſtribution of juſtice, and a rigid execution of the laws, he gave at once protection to the inferior orders of the ſtate, and diminiſhed the arbitrary power of the great. By theſe wiſe meaſures the ſtate of the kingdom was ſoon changed; order and tranquility were reſtored to ſociety, and vigour to government.

Now it was that the enterprizing ſpirit of Edward began more remarkably to ſhew itſelf. He undertook an expedition againſt Lewellyn, prince of Wales, who was obliged to ſubmit, and receive the terms impoſed on him by the Engliſh monarch; but the oppreſſions of the victors ſoon
A. D. 1283. rouſed the indignation of the welſh, who flew to arms, and Edward again entered Wales with

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an army. Lewellyn was ſurpriſed and ſlain. The welſh nobility ſubmitted to Edward; and the laws of England were eſtabliſhed in that principality. Edward's conduct in regard to Scotland, at which his ambition now pointed, ſerves more to ſhew his enterpriſing ſpirit. The royal houſe of Scotland being extinct on the death of Alexander III. two competitors ſtarted for the crown, Robert Bruce and John Baliol. Each claim was ſupported by a powerful faction. In this critical ſituation, the parliament of Scotland, in order to avoid the meaſures of civil war, embraced the dangerous reſolution of appealing to Edward, who was accordingly choſen umpire, and both parties agreed to acquieſce in his decree. His firſt ſtep was to oblige the ſcottiſh parliament to acknowledge that their crown was dependent on England. He next demanded poſſeſſion of the kingdom, that he might be able to deliver to him, whoſe right ſhould be found preferable; and this exorbitant demand was complied with, both by the barons and the claimants. He ſoon after gave judgment in favour of Baliol, who renewed the oath of fealty to England, and was put in poſſeſſion of the kingdom. Edward having thus eſtabliſhed his unjuſt claim of feudal ſuperiority over Scotland, aſpired next to the abſolute ſovereignty and dominion of that kingdom. He attempted to provoke Baliol by his indignities, to rouſe him to rebellion, and to rob

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A. D. 1291.

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him of his crown, as the puniſhment of his treaſon and felony; the paſſive ſpirit of Baliol, accordingly began to mutiny, and he entered into a ſecret alliance with France, already engaged in a war with England. The expences attending theſe multiplied wars of Edward, obliged him to have frequent recourſe to parliamentary ſupplies, and introduced the lower orders of the ſtate into the public councils. This period, therefore, ſeems to be the true æra of the houſe of commons; for the former precedents of repreſentatives from the boroughs, ſummoned by Leiceſter, was regarded as the act of a violent uſurpation, and had been diſcontinued in all ſubſequent parliaments.

A. D. 1295.

Edward employed the ſupplies granted by his people, in warlike preparations againſt his northern neighbour. At the head of thirty thouſand men he took Berwick by aſſault, and routed the whole ſcottiſh army near Dunbar. The timid Baliol, inſtead of making uſe of thoſe reſources which were left, haſtened to make his ſubmiſſions to the conqueror; expreſſed the deepeſt penitence for his diſloyalty to his liege lord, and made a ſolemn and irrevocable renunciation of his crown into the hands of Edward. The engliſh monarch, flattering himſelf that he had now attained the great object of his wiſhes, in the final reduction of Scotland, left the earl of Warrenne governor of the kingdom, and returned with his victorious army into England.

War-

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Warrenne's bad ſtate of health not permitting him to continue long in Scotland, left the adminiſtration entirely in the hands of Ormby and Creſſingham; who, inſtead of acting with prudence and moderation, exaſperated every man of ſpirit, by the rigour and ſeverity of their government. Among theſe, William Wallace undertook the deſperate project of delivering his native country from the dominion of foreigners. He was endowed with all the qualities which formed a hero; ſo that he ſoon acquired, among his aſſociates, that authority to which his virtues ſo eminently entitled him: every day brought accounts of his gallant actions; and the ſcots betook themſelves to arms in every quarter; many of the principal nobility openly countenanced Wallace's party.

Meanwhile Warrenne having collected an army of forty thouſand men, entered Scotland, and attacked him in his camp near Stirling, where the engliſh were totally routed. Warrenne was obliged to retire into England; and the principal fortreſſes in Scotland ſurrendered to the conqueror.

Edward was in Flanders when he received intelligence of theſe events; and having concluded a peace with France, haſtened over to England, where he collected his whole military force; at preſent it was without a head, and torn by inteſtine jealouſies. The elevation of Wallace to

CHAP. XXI.

the dignity of regent, or guardian of the kingdom, was the object of envy to the nobility, who repined to ſee a private man raiſed above them by his rank, and ſtill more by his reputation. Senſible of theſe evils, Wallace reſigned his authority; and the chief command devolved upon men of eminent birth, under whom the nobles were more willing to ſerve in defence of their country. They fixed their ſtation at Falkirk, where Edward came up with them, and entirely routed them. Wallace was betrayed to the engliſh; and Edward, whoſe natural bravery and magnanimity ſhould have led him to reſpect like qualities in an enemy, ordered this illuſtrious man to be conveyed in chains to London, tried as a rebel and traitor, and executed on Tower-Hill! But the cruelty exerciſed on Wallace, inſtead of breaking the ſpirit, only rouſed more effectually the reſentment of the ſcots.

A. D. 1298.

Robert Bruce, ſon of that Robert who had been one of the competitors for the crown of Scotland, had ſucceeded to all his father's pretentions; and the death of Baliol ſeemed to open a full career to the genius and ambition of this young nobleman. He regretted his engagements with Edward, and ſecretly determined to ſeize the firſt opportunity of embracing the cauſe, however deſperate, of his oppreſſed country. In conſequence of this reſolution, Bruce ſuddenly left the engliſh court, and arrived in Scotland.

Scotland. The noblemen were aſtoniſhed at the appearance of Bruce; yet more ſo, when he told them that he was come to live or die with them in defence of the liberties of his country; and hoped, with their aſſiſtance, to redeem the ſcottiſh name from all the indignities which it had ſo long ſuffered from the tyrany of its imperious maſters. The ſpirit with which this diſcourſe was delivered, made a deep impreſſion on the minds of the nobles, and rouſed all thoſe principles of indignation and revenge with which they had long been ſecretly actuated: Cummin alone, who had privately taken his meaſures with Edward, oppoſed the determination of Bruce, who being already informed of his treachery, drew his ſword and killed him on the ſpot. CHAP. XXI.

The murder of Cummin affixed the ſeal to the conſpiracy of the ſcottiſh nobles; they had now no reſource left but to ſhake of the yoke of England, or periſh in the attempt. Bruce excited his partizans every where to arms; he ſucceſsfully attacked the diſperſed bodies of the engliſh, and drove them out of the kingdom.

Meanwhile Edward was advancing with a mighty force, determined to make the now defenceleſs ſcots the victims of his ſeverity; when he unexpectedly ſickened and died at Carliſle, enjoining, with his laſt breath, his ſon and ſucceſſor to proſecute the war, and never to deſiſt A. D. 1307.

CHAP. XXI. till he had finally ſubdued the kingdom of Scotland; but that, as we ſhall afterwards have occaſion to ſee, the ſecond Edward was little able to accompliſh.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXII.

Britain, during the Reign of Edward II.

CHAP. XXII.

NO prince ever aſcended the engliſh throne with more advantage than Edward II. he was in the twenty-third year of his age, and univerſally beloved by the people: he was at the head of a great army, ready to ſubject the whole iſland to his ſway; and all men promiſed themſelves tranquility and happineſs under his government: but the firſt act of his reign blaſted all theſe hopes, and ſhewed him totally unqualified for his high ſtation. Inſtead of proſecuting the conqueſt of Scotland, according to the deſire of his father, he returned into England after two feeble efforts, and immediately diſbanded his forces. The next ſtep taken by Edward was no leſs weak and imprudent: he recalled Piers Gavaſton, a youthful favourite, whom the late king had baniſhed the realm on account of his aſcendency over this prince, and whom, on his death-bed, he made him promiſe never more to entertain.

Gavaſton no ſooner arrived at court than he was loaded with benefits, and exalted to the higheſt honours; he deſpiſed the nobility of the kingdom, and took no pains to diſarm their envy, by the moderation and modeſty of his behaviour. At length a confederacy was formed againſt him,

headed

CHAP. XXII.

headed by the earl of Lancaſter; and Edward was obliged to baniſh him. He was afterwards recalled, again baniſhed, and again recalled by the

A. D. 1312.

fond deluded monarch;—an univerſal revolt took place. Edward and his favourite were hunted from corner to corner, and Gavaſton at length fell by the hands of the public executioner.

Soon after Edward's retreat from Scotland, Robert Bruce made himſelf maſter of the whole kingdom, except a few fortreſſes; not content with defending himſelf, Robert made ſucceſsful inroads into England; ſubſiſted his needy followers by the plunder of the country, and taught them to deſpiſe the military genius of a people who had long been the object of their terror.

Edward, at length rouſed from his lethargy, aſſembled forces from all quarters, and entered Scotland at the head of an army of near one hundred thouſand men. The ſcottiſh army did not exceed thirty thouſand men, who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by many acts of valour, and who were rendered deſperate by their ſituation.

A. D. 1314.

Edward came up with Bruce at Bannockburn, about two miles from Stirling, when both armies engaged with great ardour; but aſtratagem decided the fortune of the field: Bruce had collected a number of waggoners, and furniſhed them with ſtandards; they appeared on the heights towards the left. The engliſh miſtook them for a freſh army coming to ſurround them; a panic ſeized them;

them; and they threw down their arms and fled. The ſcots purſued with great ſlaughter, took many perſons of quality priſoners, and Edward himſelf narrowly eſcaped. CHAP. XXII.

Such was the great and deciſive battle of Bannockburn, which ſecured the independency of Scotland; fixed Bruce on the throne of that kingdom, and may be deemed the moſt ſignal overthrow that the engliſh monarchy has received ſince the conqueſt.

The public adminiſtration was now a ſcene of fury, confuſion, and weakneſs: the barons took advantage of thoſe calamities, and endeavoured to eſtabliſh their own independency on the ruins of the throne. The king, who could not exiſt without a favourite, attached himſelf to Hugh Spencer, a young man of noble family, and very engaging accompliſhments. The earl of Lancaſter, and moſt of the great barons regarding him as their rival, formed violent plans for his ruin: they withdrew themſelves from parliament, betook themſelves to arms, and demanded the baniſhment of the favourite, and his father; in which the king was obliged to acquieſce. However, Edward having collected ſome forces, recalled the Spencers, took Lancaſter priſoner, who was condemned by a court martial, and led to execution.

The king of France ſeemed deſirous to take advantage of Edward's weakneſs, and threatned the

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the nation with hoſtilities. Queen Iſabella obtained permiſſion to go over to Paris, and endeavour to adjuſt matters with her brother. She there found a great number of engliſh fugitives; among which was young Roger Mortimer. His conſequence introduced him to Iſabella; and the graces of his perſon and addreſs advanced him quickly in her affections; and at laſt engaged her to ſacrifice to her paſſion all the ſentiments of honour and fidelity to her huſband. She ardently entered into all Mortimer's conſpiracies; and having got young Edward into her hands, ſhe publickly declared ſhe would never ſet foot in England till Spencer was removed for ever from the king's preſence and councils. This declaration procured her ſo much popularity, that ſhe no ſooner arrived in England with her ſon, than the king was entirely deſerted. He fled to Wales, where he was ſeized among the mountains, and confined in Kenilworth Caſtle; mean while the queen taking advantage of the prevailing deluſion, ſummoned a parliament in Edward's name, where he was accuſed of incapacity for government; and by the authority of her partiſans de-

A. D. 1327.

poſed. The prince, a youth of fourteen years of age, was placed on the throne, and the queen was appointed regent during his minority. Mortimer fearing a revolution in Edward's favour, ſecretly ſent orders to the two keepers, who were at his devotion, to diſpatch their ſovereign. Theſe

ruffians

ruffians went to the king's apartment, threw him on a bed, and thruſt into his fundament a red hot iron, which burnt his bowels. CHAP. XXII.

Thus periſhed the unfortunate Edward II. It is not eaſy for imagination to figure a man more innocent and innoffenſive, or a prince leſs fitted to govern a fierce and turbulent people.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXIII.

The German Empire, and Italy, from the Election of Rodolph of Hapſburgh, to the Death of Henry VII.

CHAP. XXIII.

THE german empire could not properly be ſaid to have a head from the death of Frederick II. till the election of Rodolph. This great captain, who had ſome time exerciſed the office of grand marſhal to Ottocarus, king of Bohemia, and was raiſed to the imperial dignity on account of his military talents, no ſooner found himſelf in poſſeſſion of the auguſt throne, than he employed his authority in ſuppreſſing the diſorders which had prevailed during the interregnum. Ottocarus, king of Bohemia, had ſeized upon the duchy of Auſtria, after the death of Frederick, the laſt duke. A diet was ſummoned on this ſubject at Augſburg, where Ottocarus not appearing, was declared a rebel to the empire, his poſſeſſion of Auſtria was declared illegal, and the emperor was deſired to diveſt him of thoſe territories. The emperor accordingly marched againſt him, and a battle enſued, in which Ottocarus was ſlain.—

A. D. 1273.

A. D. 1283. Rodolph gave the government of Auſtria to his eldeſt ſon count Albert: hence the riſe of the houſe of Auſtria.

Rodolph ſpent the latter part of his reign in eſtabliſhing the grandeur of his family in Auſtria; but

but notwithſtanding all his efforts, he could not procure his ſon Albert to be elected king of the Romans; which diſappointment ſo chagrined him, that he died ſoon after. CHAP. XXIII. A. D. 1291.

After an interregnum of nine months, the German princes raiſed Adolphus of Naſſau to the imperial throne. The reign of this prince was one continued ſcene of troubles, and at laſt terminated in his depoſition.

His neceſſities had made him guilty of ſeveral acts of injuſtice, which Albert, duke of Auſtria, diſſatisfied at not ſucceeding to the imperial throne, took care to repreſent in the worſt light. A confederacy was formed againſt Adolphus, and he was depoſed by the archbiſhop of Mentz, in the name of the princes of the empire; and Albert, duke of Auſtria, was elected to the imperial throne. Adolphus, appriſed of this election, marched towards Albert, to decide the imperial crown by arms: they engaged near Gelnheim; and the battle was maintained with much obſtinacy on both ſides, till Adolphus received a ſtroke from the hand of Albert, which brought him to the ground, and was inſtantly ſlain. A D. 1297.

Albert wiſhing to have his title confirmed by a new diet, which was accordingly aſſembled for that purpoſe at Frankfort, was afterwards ſolemnly crowned at Aix la Chapelle.

The moſt remarkable event in this reign is the riſe of the republic of Swiſſerland. Fortified by their

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their natural ſituation, ſurrounded with mountains, torrents, and woods, the ſwiſs, having nothing to fear from ſtrangers, had lived happily in a rugged country, ſuitable only to thoſe who have been accuſtomed to a frugal or a laborious courſe of life. Equality of condition was the baſis of their government. They had been free from time immemorial; and when any of their nobility attempted to tyranniſe, they were altogether expelled, or reduced within bounds by the people. But though the ſwiſs were extremely jealous of their liberty, they were always ſubmiſſive to the empire of which they held; and many of their towns were free and imperial.

Rodolphus always treated the ſwiſs with great indulgence, and generouſly defended their rights and privileges againſt the noblemen who attempted to infringe them. Albert's conduct, in theſe reſpects, was juſt the reverſe of his father's; he wanted to govern the ſwiſs as an abſolute ſovereign, and had formed a ſcheme for erecting their country into a principality for one of his ſons.—In order to effectuate this purpoſe, he endeavoured to perſuade the cantons of Urz, Schwitz, and Underwald, to ſubmit to his dominion; in which caſe he promiſed to rule them with great lenity: but finding them tenacious of their independency, and deaf to his ſolicitations, he reſolved to tame them by roughneſs, and appointed governors, who domineered over them in the moſt arbitrary manner.

Geiſler,

Geiſler, governor of Ury, ordered his hat to be fixed upon a pole in the market place of Altorf; and every paſſenger was commanded, on pain of death, to pay obeiſance to it; but the independent ſpirit of William Tell, diſdained to pay this abſurd homage, on which the governor ordered him to be hanged, but remitted his puniſhment, on condition that he ſhould ſtrike an apple from his ſon's head with an arrow. Tell, who was an excellent markſman, accepted the alternative, and had the good fortune to ſtrike off the apple, without hurting his ſon: but Geiſler perceiving a ſecond arrow under William's coat, enquired for what purpoſe it was intended. "It was deſigned for thee," replied the indignant ſwiſs, "if I had killed my ſon;" and, for this heroic anſwer, he was doomed to perpetual impriſonment. CHAP. XXIII.

This, and other acts of wanton tyranny, ſo enraged the people, that they roſe upon the auſtrian governors, and drove them out of the country. Thus theſe three cantons, Ury, Schwitz, and Underwald, delivered themſelves from the auſtrian yoke, and eſtabliſhed that liberty which they ſtill enjoy. The other cantons ſoon engaged in this confederacy, which gave birth to the republic of Switzerland. Never did any people fight longer and *harder* for their liberty, than the ſwiſs; they have purchaſed it by above ſixty bat- A. D. 1388.

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tles againſt the auſtrians; and it is probable they will preſerve it a long time.

When Albert was on the eve of venturing his forces againſt that courage, which is inſpired by the enthuſiaſm of new-born liberty, he fell a ſacrifice to his rapacity and injuſtice. He was aſſaſſinated by his nephew, John, whom he had deprived of his patrimony. No ſovereign was ever leſs regretted, though few have died more tragically.

The imperial throne continued vacant ſeven months, from the aſſaſſination of Albert. At length, the electors aſſembled at Frankfort, choſe Henry, count of Luxemburg, who was crowned, without oppoſition, at Aix-la-Chapelle.

The emperors, from the time of Frederick II. ſeemed to have loſt ſight of Italy; but Henry VII. as ſoon as he had ſettled the affairs of the north, reſolved to eſtabliſh the imperial authority in that country.

Italy was ſtill divided by the faction of the guelphs and gibbelines, who butchered one another, without humanity or remorſe. Pope Clement V. had been obliged to leave Rome, which was in the anarchy of popular government. The colonnas, the urſini, and the roman barons divided the city; and this diviſion was the cauſe of the long abode of the popes in France. In the midſt of theſe troubles, Henry VII. appeared in Italy, and cauſed himſelf to be crowned king of Lom-

Lombardy, at Milan. He next proceeded to Rome, when, after much bloodſhed, he received the imperial crown from the hands of the cardinals. Now maſter of that ancient city, the emperor was going to make good his pretenſions to the kingdom of Naples; when he died at Benevento, as it is commonly ſuppoſed, by poiſon given him by a dominican friar, in conſecrated wine of the ſacrament. CHAP. XXIII.

CHAP. XXIV.

France, from the Death of St. Lewis, till the Acceſſion of the Houſe of Valois.

CHAP. XXIV.

WE have already ſeen the pious St. Lewis periſh on the coaſt of Africa, in a ſecond expedition againſt the infidels. The moſt remarkable circumſtance in the reign of his ſon and ſucceſſor, Philip the Hardy, is the intereſt that he took in the affairs of his uncle, Charles of Anjou, king of Naples and Sicily, which naturally leads us to an account of the famous ſicilian veſpers.

Charles, by the ſeverity of his government, had not only rendered himſelf, but his family, odious to the ſicilians; and the inſolence and debauchery of the french troops had excited an irreconcilable averſion to the whole nation. John di Prodiga, a ſicilian nobleman, ſecretly prepared the minds of his countrymen for a revolt, and an accident gave it birth. On the evening of Eaſter-day, as the french and ſicilians were going in proceſſion to veſpers, a bride happened to paſs by with her train, when one Droguet, a frenchman, inſtantly ran to her, and behaved in a rude manner, under pretence of ſearching for concealed arms. A young ſicilian, flaming with reſentment, ſtabbed Droguet to the heart; a tu-

mult

mult enſued, and two hundred frenchmen were ſlain on the ſpot. The enraged populace next ran to the city, crying aloud, let the french die, let the french die; and, without any diſtinction of age or ſex, murdered every perſon of that nation, in Palermo. The ſame fury ſpread itſelf through the whole iſland, and produced a general maſſacre. CHAP. XXIV.

Peter, king of Arragon, who had married the daughter of Mainfroy, the former uſurper of Sicily, ſupported the ſicilians in their rebellion, and openly claimed the kingdom in right of his wife. The ſicilians received him with open arms; he was crowned at Palermo; and Charles was obliged to abandon the iſland, after having, in vain, beſieged Meſſina for ſix weeks. He had now no hopes, but from his nephew, Philip, king of France, who promiſed him ſupport. Pope Martin IV. was alſo entirely in Charles's intereſt. This pope excommunicated Peter of Arragon, and gave his dominions to any of the younger ſons of France, that the king ſhould chuſe to name. Philip, flattered by this propoſal, declared his ſon Charles, of Valois, king of Arragon and Valentia. He put himſelf at the head of a numerous army, in order to realiſe theſe honours; and he furniſhed, at the ſame time, his uncle, Charles, of Anjou, with a fleet and army, for the recovery of Sicily.

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Charles had left a ſon of the ſame name at Naples, with ſtrict orders to riſk nothing, till his arrival with ſuccours from France: but that young prince, provoked by the arragoneſe fleet, ſailed out with the force under his command, and was defeated, and taken priſoner before his father's return; a circumſtance which ſo much affected the king, that he is ſaid to have ſtrangled himſelf with a halter, a death ſufficiently mild for ſuch a tyrant.

Meanwhile, the french army, under the command of Philip, penetrated into Catalonia, and laid ſiege to Gironne: the king of Arragon attacked a convoy going to the french camp, and received a mortal wound. About the ſame time
A. D. 1285. the arragoneſe admiral entirely deſtroyed the french fleet; which ſunk ſo deeply in the mind of Philip, that he ſecretly repaſſed the Pyrennees, and died a few days after at Perpignan.

The reign of Philip IV. ſurnamed the Fair, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Philip the Hardy, forms an æra in the hiſtory of France, by the civil and political regulations to which it gave birth, the inſtitutions of the ſupreme tribunals, called parliaments, and the admiſſion of the commons, or third eſtate, into the general aſſemblies of the nation. We ſhall, at preſent, confine ourſelves to the quarrels of Philip with pope Boniface VIII. and the extinction of the order of knights templars.

Philip,

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Philip, who was very needy, thought the clergy ought to contribute to the wants of the crown, without the permiſſion of Rome. The pope prohibited the clergy in general, from granting any aids or ſubſidies, without leave. This was the firſt cauſe of the quarrel between Boniface and Philip; and the inſolence of a biſhop of Pamiers, put things in a ſtill greater ferment. This man, named Bernard Sayſite, who had rebelled againſt the king in his dioceſe, was nominated by Boniface, legate to the french court. An obnoxious ſubject thus inveſted with a dignity, which according to the ſee of Rome, made him equal to the ſovereign himſelf, came to Paris, and braved Philip, threatening his kingdom with an interdict. The pope, at the ſame time, iſſued a bull, declaring, that the vicar of Chriſt is veſted with full authority over the kings and kingdoms of the earth; and the clergy of France received an order from his holineſs, to repair to Rome. Philip ordered the pope's bull to be thrown into the fire, and prohibited the biſhops from departing the kingdom; forty of them, however, went to Rome, notwithſtanding the king's prohibition; for which treſpaſs he ſeized all their temporalities.

The colonnas, with whom Philip had entered into a league, ſurpriſed the pope, at Agnani, a town in his own territories; and on this occaſion, it is ſaid, Sciara Colonna had the brutality to

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ſtrike him; crying out, "Tyrant, renounce the "pontificate which thou haſt diſhonoured." "I "am pope," replied Boniface, with a look of intrepidity, "and I will die pope." This gallant behaviour had ſuch an effect on the minds of the inhabitants, that they roſe againſt his enemies, and reſcued him from their hands; but Boniface was ſo much affected by the indignities which had been offered him, that he died in a few days.

A. D. 1303.

On the death of Boniface, the cardinals elected Benedict XI. who ſurvived his elevation but a ſhort period; and it is ſaid, was taken off by poiſon: he was ſucceeded by Clement V. who being a frenchman, and entirely in the intereſt of Philip, fixed his reſidence in France.

Philip had occaſion for the aſſiſtance of Clement in an affair that lay near his heart, the ſuppreſſion of the order of knights templars. The great riches of thoſe knights, and other concurring cauſes, had relaxed the ſeverity of their virtues; being all men of birth, they ſcorned the ignoble occupations of a monaſtic life, and paſſed their time wholly in the faſhionable amuſements of hunting, gallantry, and the pleaſures of the table. The ſeverity of the taxes had cauſed a ſedition in Paris. The knights templars were accuſed of being concerned in the mutiny: they were rich, as it has been obſerved, and Philip was no leſs avaricious than vindictive. He determined

mined to involve the whole order in one undiſtinguiſhed ruin. He ordered all the templars in France to be committed to priſon, on one day, and imputed to them ſuch enormous crimes, as were ſufficient of themſelves to deſtroy all the credit of the accuſation. They were univerſally charged with murder, robbery, and the vices moſt ſhocking to nature. Above one hundred knights were put to the rack, in order to extort from them a confeſſion of their guilt: great numbers periſhed by fire, in different parts of the kingdom. In all this barbarous injuſtice, Clement V. fully concurred; and without examining a ſingle witneſs, or making any enquiry into the truth of facts, he aboliſhed the whole order. The templars all over Europe were thrown into priſon, and their lands were given to the knights hoſpitallers, now knights of Malta. CHAP. XXIV. A. D. 1312.

Philip died ſoon after the ſuppreſſion of this order, in the thirtieth year of his reign, and forty-ſeventh of his age.

Lewis X. ſurnamed Hutin, ſon and ſucceſſor of Philip the Fair, ſurvived his father only two years.

Lewis dying without iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother Philip V. ſurnamed the Long; whoſe reign, and alſo his brother Charles the Fair's, were both ſhort, and neither was diſtinguiſhed by any thing remarkable. Charles left one daughter; but as his queen was pregnant, Philip

of

CHAP. XXIV.

A. D. 1338.

of Valois, the next male heir, was appointed regent, with a declared right of ſucceſſion, if the iſſue ſhould prove female. The queen of France being delivered of a daughter, the regency ended; and Philip of Valois was unanimouſly placed on the throne of France.

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CHAP. XXV.

England, Scotland, France, and Spain, during the Reign of Edward III.

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WE have already been witneſs to the miſerable death of the ſecond Edward, by the inhuman emiſſaries of Roger Mortimer, the queen's gallant, who now become the object of public odium. The hatred of the nation daily increaſed both againſt him and queen Iſabella; the diſpoſition of the people could not long eſcape the obſervation of a prince of ſo much diſcernment as young Edward, nor fail to rouſe his active ſpirit, againſt the murderer of his father and the diſhonour of his mother. But he was beſieged in ſuch a manner by the creatures of Mortimer; that it became neceſſary to conduct the project of bringing that felon to juſtice with as much ſecrecy and caution as if he had been forming a conſpiracy againſt his ſovereign. He communicated his intentions to ſome of the nobility, who readily entered into his views: they ſurprized the uſurper in the caſtle of Nottingham, and dragged him from an apartment adjoining to the queen's, while ſhe in the moſt pathetic manner implored her ſon to ſpare the *gentle Mortimer*.—A parliament was immediately ſummoned for his condemnation, and he was ſentenced to die, from the ſuppoſed notoriety of his crimes without any form or trial. He periſhed by the hands of the hangman at Elmes, A. D. 1330.

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Elmes, near London; and the queen was confined during life to her houſe at Reſings; where ſhe languiſhed out twenty-five years of ſorrow rather than of penitence.

Edward being now maſter of the kingdom, began his reign by the conqueſt of Scotland. The wiſe and valiant Robert Bruce, who had recovered by arms the independency of his country, was now dead, and had left David his ſon a minor, which gave Edward Baliol, ſon of John Baliol, who had been crowned king of Scotland, a favourable opportunity of claiming the throne; and Edward promiſed to aſſiſt him in his pretenſions. He therefore gave him permiſſion to levy what forces he was able in England; and with not above three thouſand adventurers, Baliol gained a conſiderable victory over his countrymen, in which twelve thouſand of them were ſlain. Baliol ſoon after this victory was crowned king at Scone; but he loſt the kingdom by a revolution as ſudden as that by which he had acquired it.—He was ſuddenly attacked and defeated by Sir Archibald Douglas, and obliged to take refuge in England once more in a miſerable condition.

An attempt thus unſucceſsfully made by Baliol, only ſerved to inflame the ardour of Edward, who joyfully accepted of that offer of homage and ſuperiority, which it was Baliol's preſent intereſt to make: he therefore put himſelf at the head of a powerful army, in order to reinſtate Baliol

Baliol in his throne. The ſcots met him with an army more numerous, but leſs united; a battle was fought at Hallidown hill, a little to the north of Berwick; where about thirty thouſand ſcots fell, and all the chief nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. CHAP. XXV. A. D. 1333.

After this fatal blow Baliol was acknowledged king by a parliament aſſembled at Edinburgh; and Edward returned in triumph to England; but no ſooner were Edward's forces withdrawn, than the ſcots revolted againſt Baliol. Edward's appearance a ſecond time ſerved to bring them to ſubjection; but they quickly renewed their animoſities upon his returning, depending on ſuccour from France, as a war was now likely to break out between that kingdom and England.

Theſe tranſactions naturally lead us to Edward's claim to the crown of France, in the right of his mother Iſabella, who was daughter to Philip the Fair.—Philip of Valois, on the other hand, put himſelf in poſſeſſion of the government, as being next male heir; and on the queen dowager's being delivered of a daughter, he was unanimouſly elected king: but Edward did not carry his pretenſions ſo far as to engage immediately in a war with ſo powerful a monarch as Philip: on the contrary, he went over to Amiens, and did homage for Guienne; which was indirectly acknowledging Philip's title to the crown of France. But the homage was ſoon followed by

CHAP. XXV. by a war; and a brewer of Ghent was the principal promoter of it, and the perſon who determined Edward to take the title of king of France. This brewer, whoſe name was James Ardevelt, was one of thoſe ſubjects whom princes ought either to ruin or keep fair with. The prodigious credit he had obtained among his countrymen, made him a neceſſary inſtrument to Edward: he placed and diſplaced magiſtrates at pleaſure; he was accompanied by a guard, who, on the leaſt ſignal from him, inſtantly aſſaſſinated any man that happened to fall under his diſpleaſure. This was the man on whom Edward depended for bringing over the flemings to his intereſt; but Ardevelt would not exert this credit in behalf of the engliſh monarch, unleſs he would take the title of the king of France, in order to make an irreconcileable breach between the two kings.

Edward repaired to Flanders, attended by ſeveral of the nobility, and a body of engliſh forces. The french monarch made great preparations againſt the attack of the engliſh, and a mighty army was brought into the field on both ſides.

A. D. 1339. Conferences and mutual defiances were all that the firſt campaign produced; and Edward diſtreſſed for want of money, was obliged to diſband his army and return to England.

But a new event happened which renewed the war between France and England. The count of

of Mountfort, the heir male of Britany, had seized that duchy in oppoſition to Charles of Blois, the french king's nephew, who had married the daughter of the late duke. Senſible that he could expect no favour from Philip, Mountfort made a voyage to England, and offered to do homage to Edward as king of France, for the duchy of Britany. He propoſed a ſtrict alliance for the ſupport of each other's pretenſions. CHAP. XXV.

But the captivity of the count of Mountfort, which happened ſoon after, ſeemed to put a ſtop to all the advantages naturally to be expected from ſuch an alliance. The counteſs of Mountfort, the moſt extraordinary woman of her age, rouſed by the impriſonment of her huſband, from thoſe domeſtic cares to which ſhe had hitherto confined herſelf, boldly undertook to ſupport the falling fortunes of her family. She preſented herſelf to her huſband's troops, holding her young ſon in her arms; ſhe ſtrictly defended the town of Heneborſe, and at length, with the aſſiſtance of the engliſh fleet, ſhe obliged the enemy to raiſe the ſiege. A. D. 1343.

In the mean time, Edward invaded Normandy with an army of thirty thouſand men: he took ſeveral towns, and ravaged the whole province, carrying his excurſions even to the gates of Paris. At length Philip advanced againſt him, at the head of a hundred thouſand men: and Edward,

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Edward, afraid of being ſurrounded in an enemy's country, retreated into Flanders.

In this retreat happened the celebrated battle of Creſſy. Edward had luckily paſſed the river Somme, when Philip appeared in his rear; he therefore embraced the reſolution of giving the enemy battle, and choſe his ground advantageouſly near the village of Creſſy, where he drew up his army in excellent order, and divided it into three lines. The firſt line was commanded by the prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour; and the ſecond by the earls of Arundel and Northampton; and the king took the direction of the third. The battle began about three o'clock, Auguſt the 26th, and continued till evening; when the whole french army took to flight, and was purſued with great ſlaughter. Almoſt forty thouſand of the french were ſlain. On his return to the camp, Edward flew into the arms of the prince of Wales, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a remarkable manner: "My brave ſon," cried he, "perſevere as "you have begun; you are my ſon, for va-"liantly have you acquitted yourſelf to day: "you have ſhewn yourſelf worthy of empire!"

Edward, inſtead of expecting that the victory of Creſſy would be immediately followed by a total ſubjection of the diſputed kingdom, ſeemed rather to moderate his views; he prudently limited

mited his ambition to the conqueſt of Calais, which was taken after an obſtinate ſiege of twelve months. A truce was ſoon after concluded with France, and Edward returned in triumph to England. CHAP. XXV.

While theſe tranſactions were paſſing on the continent, David Bruce, king of Scotland, whom his countrymen had reinſtated on the throne, invaded the northern counties of England, and carried his ravages as far as Durham, where he was met by queen Philippa, at the head of twelve thouſand men. A fierce engagement enſued; the ſcots were chaſed off the field with great ſlaughter; the king himſelf was taken priſoner, together with many of the principal nobility. A. D. 1346.

A damp, however, was ſuddenly thrown over the triumphant feſtivity of the engliſh court, by a deſtructive peſtilence, which about this time invaded Britain, after having deſolated the greateſt part of the earth. This grievous calamity, more than the pacific diſpoſition of the princeſs, ſerved to prolong the truce between England and France. A. D. 1348.

During this truce Philip de Valois died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon John. This weak, but virtuous prince, upon coming to the crown, found himſelf at the head of an exhauſted nation, and a divided and factious nobility. A. D. 1355.

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Charles, king of Navarre, ſurnamed the Bad, was the principal author of theſe calamities. He was of the blood-royal of France, and ſon-in-law of king John; but all theſe ties, which ought to have connected him with the throne, gave him greater power to ſhake and overthrow it. He ſecretly entered into a correſpondence with the king of England, and the truce between the two kingdoms being expired, the war was again renewed.

The prince of Wales, with an army of twelve thouſand men, had ventured to penetrate into the heart of France. King John, provoked at the inſult offered him by this incurſion, collected an army of ſixty thouſand combatants, and advanced, by haſty marches to intercept him.

The prince, not aware of John's approach, loſt ſome days on his retreat, and thereby gave the french an opportunity of overtaking him. They came within ſight at Maupertuis, near Poitiers; and young Edward, ſenſible that his retreat was now become impracticable, prepared for battle with all the courage of a hero, and all the prudence of an experienced general. John, by the ſuperiority of his forces, might have ſtarved the whole engliſh army; but the impatient ardour of the french nobility prevented this idea from ſtriking any of the commanders, ſo that they immediately

A. D. 1356.

mediately took meaſures for the aſſault, with full aſſurance of victory; but they found themſelves miſtaken; the engliſh received them with deſperate valour, put their army to flight, and took their king priſoner.

The prince of Wales conducted his royal priſoner to Bourdeaux; and after concluding a truce for two years, carried him to England. It is well known, that upon this occaſion, he behaved with the utmoſt tenderneſs and reſpect to the king of France. His moderation added new luſtre to the glory he had acquired by his valour.

The king of Scotland had been eleven years a captive in the hands of Edward, whoſe ſuperior genius and fortune had reduced at once the two neighbouring potentates with whom he was engaged in war, to the condition of priſoners in his capital; however, Edward conſented to reſtore David Bruce to his liberty, for the ranſom of one hundred marks ſterling.

Meanwhile, the captivity of the french monarch, proved the ſignal of civil war at Paris. Charles, the dauphin of France, who was afterwards the wiſe king Charles V. was declared regent of the kingdom; but it was only to ſee almoſt the whole kingdom revolt againſt him.

During theſe commotions in the ſtate, Charles of Navarre aſpired to the crown, and the dauphin and he, waged war with one another, which

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ended only in a diſſembled peace. In this manner was the unhappy kingdom rent in pieces, for the ſpace of four years after the battle of Poitiers.

The ſtate of the engliſh finances made it neceſſary for Edward to liſten to equitable terms of peace, which was at laſt concluded, upon condition that king John ſhould be reſtored to liberty, on paying a ranſom of a million and a half of our money; and it was ſtipuleted, that Edward, ſhould renounce for ever all claim to the crown of France.

In conſequence of this treaty, the king of
A. D. 1364. France was reſtored to his liberty; but many difficulties ariſing with reſpect to the execution of ſome of the articles, he took the honourable reſolution of coming over to England in order to adjuſt them, where he ſoon after ſickened and died.

John was ſucceeded in the throne of France by his ſon, Charles V. a prince educated in the ſchool of adverſity, and well qualified by his prudence and experience to repair the loſſes which the kingdom had ſuſtained from the errors of his predeceſſors.

France was at this time infeſted with a banditti, whoſe number amounted to forty thouſand, and who bore the appearance of regular armies rather than bands of robbers. As charles was not able by power to redreſs ſo enormous a grievance,

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he wiſhed for an opportunity of diſcharging into foreign countries this dangerous and inteſtine evil, and an occaſion now offered. CHAP. XXV.

Alphonſo XI. king of Caſtile, had been ſucceeded by his ſon, Peter I. ſurnamed the Cruel; a prince equally perfidious, debauched, and bloody. He began his reign with the murder of his father's miſtreſs, Leonora de Guſman; his nobles fell every day the victims of his ſeverity; he put to death his couſin, and one of his natural brothers, from groundleſs jealouſies; and he cauſed his queen, Blanche of Bourbon, of the blood royal of France, to be thrown into priſon, and afterwards poiſoned. Henry, count of Traſtamara, the king's natural brother, alarmed at the fate of his family, and dreading his own, took arms againſt the tyrant: but having failed in his attempt, he fled to France, to aſk the permiſſion of Charles to enliſt thoſe freebooters into his ſervice, and lead them into Caſtile againſt his brother. The French king, charmed with the project, employed Bertrand du Gueſclin, one of the moſt accompliſhed captains of thoſe times, to negociate with the leaders of this banditti. A. D. 1366.

This treaty was ſoon concluded; and du Gueſclin having completed his levies, proceeded on the expedition. Peter, unable to oppoſe ſo powerful a force, fled from his dominions, and craved the protection of the prince of Wales, then at Guienne, who promiſed his ſupport, and

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marched an army into Spain, for that purpoſe. Henry, whoſe army amounted to one hundred thouſand men, three times the number of thoſe command d by the Black Prince, gave the engliſh battle on the banks of the river Ebro, where the french and ſpainards were defeated, with the loſs of twenty thouſand men; and du Gueſclin, and other officers of diſtinction taken priſoners. All Caſtile ſubmited to the victor, and Peter was reſtored to the throne; but as ſoon as Edward had retired, and du Gueſclin had paid his ranſom, Henry levied ſome forces anew, and gained a compleat victory over Peter, in the neighbourhood of Toledo; the tyrant was taken priſoner and ſlain by the hands of his brother. Henry, though a baſtard, was placed on the throne of Caſtile, which he tranſmitted to his poſterity.

A. D. 1367.

In the mean time, the affairs of the Black Prince were fallen into great diſorder; his ill ſtate of health obliging him to return to his native country, the affairs of the engliſh went into total ruin.

Charles, ſeizing ſo favourable an opportunity, ſtripped them in a few years of all their ancient poſſeſſions in France, except Bourdeaux and Bayonne; and all their conqueſts except Calais.

A. D. 1376.

Mean while, the prince of Wales died; leaving behind him a character adorned with every eminent

eminent virtue; and which would throw luſtre on the moſt ſhining period of ancient or modern hiſtory. CHAP. XXV.

The king ſurvived this melancholly incident only about a twelvemonth; he expired in the ſixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-firſt of his reign; one of the longeſt and moſt glorious in the engliſh annals.

CHAP. XXVI.

The German Empire and Italy, from the Election of Lewis of Bavaria, to the Death of Charles IV.

CHAP. XXVI

A. D. 1314.

THE death of Henry VII. was followed by an interregnum of fourteen months, which were employed in the intrigues of Lewis of Bavaria, and of Frederick, duke of Auſtria. Lewis was elected by the greater number of princes; but Frederick being choſen and ſupported by a faction, diſputed the empire with him. A furious civil war, which long deſolated both Italy and Germany, was the conſequence of the oppoſition; but the battle of Vechivis, in which the duke of Auſtria was taken priſoner, fixed the imperial crown on the head of Lewis V.

The emperor had no ſooner humbled the duke of Auſtria, than a new antagoniſt ſtarted up. Pope John XXII. the ſon of a cobler, and one of thoſe men, who, raiſed to power by chance or merit, are haughty in proportion to the meanneſs of their birth. He excommunicated and depoſed the emperor Lewis, for preſuming to accept of the imperial crown, without his permiſſion. The emperor, thus depoſed, marched with all expedition to Italy, and called a general aſſembly at Rome; where he depoſed pope John,

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and created a new one, by the name of Nicholas V. But Lewis, notwithſtanding this mighty parade, was ſoon obliged to quit Italy, in order to quell the troubles of Germany; and pope John, though a refugee on the banks of the Rhone, recovered his authority at Rome. Nicholas was made priſoner, and ended his days in confinement. CHAP. XXVI. A. D. 1330.

John was ſucceeded in the papacy by Benedict XII. who ſeemed deſirous to tread in the footſteps of his predeceſſors, and confirmed all the bulls, which had been iſſued by John againſt the emperor. At length the princes of the empire, eccleſiaſtical as well as ſecular, aſſembled at Frankfort, eſtabliſhed that famous conſtitution, by which it was irrevokably fixed, that the plurality of the ſuffragans of the electoral college confers the empire, without the conſent of the holy ſee; that the pope has no ſuperiority over the emperor of Germany, nor any right to approve or reject his election; and that to maintain the contrary is high treaſon.

Benedict XII. was ſucceeded by Clement VI. a native of France, and ſo haughty and enterpriſing as to affirm, that his predeceſſors did not know what it was to be popes. He began his pontificate with iſſuing a bull for the election of a new emperor; and Charles of Luxemburg, afterwards known by the name of Charles IV. ſon and heir of John, king of Bohemia, having made the

CHAP. XXVI. A. D. 1347.

the neceſſary conceſſion to his holineſs, was elected king of the romans by a faction. Lewis, however, maintained his authority till his death, which happened ſoon after the election of his rival; when Charles, rather by his money than his valour, got poſſeſſion of the imperial throne.

The kingdom of Naples and Sicily ſtill continued to be ruled by foreigners. Naples was governed by the houſe of France; and Sicily by that of Arragon. Robert, of Anjou, died in 1343, and left his crown to Joan, his granddaughter, who had married her relation, Andrew, brother to Lewis of Anjou, elected king of Hungary; a match which ſeemed to cement the happineſs and proſperity of that houſe, but proved the ſource of its misfortunes. Andrew pretended to reign in his own right; and Joan, though but eighteen years of age, inſiſted, that he ſhould only be conſidered as the queen's huſband. A franciſcan friar, by whoſe advice Andrew was governed, lighted up the flames of hatred and diſcord between the royal pair; it was therefore reſolved, in a council of the queen's favourites, to put Andrew to death. He was accordingly ſtrangled in his wife's antichamber; and Joan married the prince of Tarentum, who had been publickly accuſed of the murder of her huſband. How ſtrong a preſumption of her own guilt,

Lewis,

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Lewis, king of Hungary, brother to the murdered Andrew, wrote to Joan, that he would revenge the death of the unfortunate prince, on her and her accomplices. He accordingly ſet out for Naples, carrying along with him a black ſtandard, on which was painted Andrew's murder. He ordered a prince of the blood, and one of the accomplices in the regicide, to be beheaded. Joan and her huſband fled into Provence, and waited on the pope at Avignon, a city of which ſhe was ſovereign, as counteſs of Provence, and ſold to that pontiff, for eighty thouſand florins in gold, which ſhe never received. Lewis having partly effected his purpoſe, went away ſatisfied, though the kingdom of Naples was in her power. Joan recovered her dominions, but only to be more wretched.

The reign of the emperor Charles IV. was diſtinguiſhed by nothing remarkable, except the famous conſtitution, known by the name of the Golden Bull, from a golden ſeal affixed to it, which, in vulgar Latin, was called *bulla*. The ſtile of this celebrated charter partakes ſtrongly of the ſpirit of the times. It begins with an apoſtrophe to ſatan, anger, pride, luxury; and it ſays, it is neceſſary the number of electors ſhould be ſeven, in order to oppoſe the ſeven mortal ſins. The ſeven electors, were the archbiſhop of Mentz, Cologne, and Triers, the king of

A. D. 1356.

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of Bohemia, the count of Palatine, the duke of Saxony, and the Margrave of Brandenburg.

Charles died in 1378, and was ſucceeded in all his poſſeſſions and dignities by his ſon, Winceſlaus, whom we ſhall afterwards have occaſion to mention. We muſt now return to the affairs of England.

CHAP. XXVII.

England, from the Death of Edward III. to the Acceſſion of Henry V. with ſome Account of Scotland, during that Period.

RICHARD II. ſon to the Black Prince, came to the throne of his grandfather, when as yet but eleven years of age, and found the people diſcontented and poor, the nobles proud and rebellious. As the king was a minor, the government was veſted in the hands of his three uncles, the Dukes of Lancaſter, York, and Gloceſter. The different characters of thoſe three princes rendered them alſo a counterpoiſe to each other; ſo that there appeared no new circumſtance in the domeſtic ſituation of England, which could endanger the public peace, or give any immediate apprehenſions to the lovers of their country. But this flattering proſpect proved deluſive: diſſentions and diſcontents ſoon took place among all orders of men. The firſt tumult was of the popular kind. The public expences made it neceſſary for parliament to impoſe a poll tax of three groats a head, on every perſon, male and female, above fifteen years of age. The inequality of this tax was obvious to the meaneſt capacity; and the rigorous manner in which it was levied, made it ſtill more grievous. The diſcontents of the populace

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A. D. 1390.

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populace being thus prepared, the inſolence of a tax-gatherer, and the ſpirit of a blackſmith, blew them into a flame. While the blackſmith was at work in a village, in Eſſex, the tax-gatherer came to his ſhop, and demanded payment for his daughter. The father replied, that ſhe was below the age preſcribed by the ſtatute. The tax-gatherer affirmed, that ſhe was a full grown woman, and in proof of his aſſertion, attempted an indecency; which incenſed the father to ſuch a degree, that he knocked the ruffian dead with his hammer. The by ſtanders applauded the action, and exclaimed, that it was full time for the people to take vengeance on their tyrants, and aſſert their native rights. They flew to arms; the flame of ſedition ſpread from county to county; and before the government had the leaſt intimation of the danger, the diſorder had grown beyond all controul or oppoſition.

A. D. 1382.

Theſe mutinous peaſants, to the number of one hundred thouſand, marched to London under their leader, Wat Tyler. They demanded a conference with the king, who found it neceſſary to go out and enquire their demand. Their requeſt ſeemed highly reaſonable; but Wat Tyler, their leader, in making his demands, frequently lifted up his ſword in a menacing manner; which ſo much incenſed William Walworth, mayor of London, who attended the king on this occaſion, that he lifted up his mace, and ſtruck Tyler ſo violent

violent a blow, as brought him to the ground; where he was immediately run through the body by another of the king's train. CHAP. XXVII.

The mutineers ſeeing their leader fall, prepared themſelves for revenge; and the king and his whole company muſt have periſhed on the ſpot, had not Richard diſcovered an extraordinary preſence of mind in this extremity: he ordered his company to ſtop, advanced alone towards the enraged multitude, and accoſting them with an affable and intrepid countenance, "What my "good people," ſaid he, "is the meaning of this "commotion; be not concerned for the loſs of "your leader; I am your king; I will become "your leader; follow me into the field, and you "ſhall have whatever you deſire." Overawed by his preſence, they implicitly followed him; and he peaceably diſmiſſed them, after granting them their demands.

Richard's conduct on this occaſion, conſidering that he was only ſixteen years of age, raiſed great expectation in the nation; but in proportion as he advanced in years, they entirely vaniſhed, and his want of capacity, or at leaſt of ſolid judgment, appeared in every enterprize which he undertook.

Addicted to vulgar pleaſures, he ſpent his whole time in feaſting and jollity; and diſſipated in idle ſhow, or in bounties to favourites of no reputation, that revenue which the people wiſhed to ſee him employ

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employ in enterprises for the public honour and advantage.

The duke of Gloceſter ſoon perceived the opportunities which this diſſolute conduct of his nephew afforded him of inſinuating himſelf into the affections of the nation; and he determined to aſpire at popularity, as the ladder to the throne.

Richard, however, got intelligence of his deſigns, and ordered him to be arreſted, and carried over to Calais; where he was ſoon after murdered. *The deſtruction of the duke of Glouceſter* was followed by the baniſhment of two noblemen, the duke of Hereford and the duke of Norfolk, relative to ſome private diſpute; which brought on a challenge. Hereford was baniſhed for ten years, and Norfolk for life: but Hereford, who was ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, had no ſooner left the kingdom, than Richard's jealouſy of the power and riches of that family encreaſed; and he was ſenſible, that by Glouceſter's death he had only removed a counterpoiſe to the Lancaſtrian intereſt, which was now become formidable to the crown: he therefore took every method to ſully the reputation of Henry abroad, and to obſtruct his alliances, by repreſenting him as guilty of treaſonable practices; and when his father, the duke of Lancaſter, died, he took poſſeſſion of the family eſtate.

Theſe inſtances of rapacity and ſeverity procured Richard the univerſal odium of the people;

ple; who turned their eyes towards Henry, now duke of Lancaſter, as the only perſon that could retrieve the loſt honour of the nation, or redreſs the ſuppoſed abuſes in the government. CHAP XXVII.

While the minds of men were thus diſpoſed, Richard went over to quell an inſurrection in Ireland, and thereby afforded his exiled couſin an opportunity of gratifying the wiſhes of the nation. Henry landed at Ravenſpur, in Yorkſhire, accompanied only by ſixty perſons: but he was immediately joined by the earls of Northumberland and Weſtmoreland, two of the moſt potent barons in England, and the malcontents in all quarters flew to arms.

Richard no ſooner received intelligence of this invaſion, than he haſtened over to England, and landed at Milford Haven, with a body of twenty thouſand men; but even this ſmall army was ſeized with the ſpirit of diſaffection, and the king ſoon found himſelf entirely deſerted. In this extremity he fled to the iſland of Angleſea; but on the promiſes of loyalty and ſubmiſſion from the duke of Lancaſter, Richard was ſo credulous as to put himſelf in the power of his enemy. He was carried about in an abject manner, expoſed to the inſults of the populace; depoſed, confined in priſon, and afterwards murdered; and the duke of Lancaſter was proclaimed king, under the name of Henry IV.

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The beginning of the reign of Henry IV. was ſtained by many acts of blood and violence; all who oppoſed his title fell a ſacrifice to his rigid policy. But all his precaution could not ſhield him from numerous alarms. The welch made irruptions on the borders, and carried on a tedious and troubleſome war; which Owen Glendour, their leader, long ſuſtained by his valour and activity, aided by the natural ſtrength of the country, and the untamed ſpirit of the inhabitants.

The ſcots alſo were tempted by theſe diſorders to make incurſions into England. Archibald, earl of Douglas, at the head of twelve thouſand men, was overtaken by the Piercies, on his return, from one of thoſe irruptions, when a fierce battle enſued, and the ſcots were totally routed.

A. D. 1402. Douglas himſelf was taken priſoner, beſides a number of the ſcottiſh nobility and gentry.

When Henry received intelligence of this victory, he ſent the earl of Northumberland orders not to ranſom his priſoners; which that nobleman regarded as his right by the laws of war received in that age. The king intended to detain them, that he might be able to make by their means an advantageous peace with Scotland; but by this ſelfiſh policy, he gave diſguſt to the Piercies. The impatient ſpirit of Harry Piercy, commonly known by the name of Hotſpur, could

could not brook this ſuppoſed injury; he therefore inflamed the diſcontents of his father, who reſolved to overturn a throne, which he had the principal hand in eſtabliſhing. He entered into a correſpondence with Glendour; he gave liberty to the earl of Douglas, and made an alliance with that martial chieftain. But when war was ready to break out, Northumberland was ſeized with a ſudden illneſs at Berwick; and young Piercy taking the command of the troops, marched towards Shrewſbury, in order to join his forces with thoſe of Glendour. CHAP. XXVII.

The king had happily an army on foot, with which he intended to act againſt the ſcots; and knowing the importance of celerity in all civil wars, he inſtantly hurried down, in order to give battle to the rebels. The armies were nearly equal in number, conſiſting of about twelve thouſand men each; and we ſcarcely find any battle in thoſe ages where the ſhock was more terrible, or more conſtant. Henry expoſed his perſon in the thickeſt of the fight; and the prince of Wales, his gallant ſon, whoſe military atchievements became afterwards ſo famous, ſignalized himſelf in a remarkable manner. Piercy ſupported that renown which he had acquired in many a bloody combat; and Douglas, his ancient enemy, and now his friend, ſtill appeared his rival, amid the horror and confuſion of the fight. At length the death of Hotſpur, by an unknown hand, decided A. D. 1403

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the victory; and the royaliſts prevailed. The death of Glendour, which happened ſoon after this victory, freed Henry from all his domeſtic enemies; and a fortunate event, which threw the heir to the crown of Scotland into his hands, made him alſo ſecure in that quarter.

A. D. 1413.

The remaining part of the reign of Henry IV. was chiefly ſpent in regulating the affairs of his kingdom. He died in the forty-ſixth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign, with the reputation of a wiſe king, but bad man.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXVIII.

The German Empire, and Italy, from the Succeſſion of Winciſlaus to the Death of Sigiſmund.

WINCESLAUS ſucceeded his father Charles IV. in the government of the empire, and on the throne of Bohemia, when the church was divided by one of thoſe conteſts ſo diſgraceful to Chriſtianity. The italians had raiſed to the pontificate Urban VI. who confirmed the election of the new emperor, and the french had choſen Clement VII. This pope, who had taken Rome from his rival, was expelled in his turn by the citizens, and afterwards ſettled at Avignon, the former reſidence of the french pontiffs. Urban uſed his victory like a tyrant; but all prieſts in power, it has been ſaid, are tyrants. The famous Joan, queen of Naples, of whom we have already had occaſion to ſpeak, firſt experienced the effects of his vengeance. CHAP. XXVIII. A. D. 1378.

This princeſs, who had imprudently eſpouſed the cauſe of Clement, had been ſeveral times married, but had no children by any of her huſband's: ſhe therefore adopted Charles Durazzio, the natural heir of her kingdom, and the only remaining deſcendant of the houſe of Anjou in Naples. But Durazzio thinking it too long to wait for the

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crown till the natural death of his adopted mother, aſſociated himſelf with pope Urban, who

A. D. 1273.

crowned him king of Naples at Rome, and depoſed queen Joan, declaring her guilty of hereſy and high treaſon. Theſe ſteps being taken, the pope and Durazzio marched towards Naples. Joan fell into the uſurper's hands; who, in order to give ſome colour to his barbarity, declared himſelf the avenger of the murder of her firſt huſband. Lewis, king of Hungary, was conſulted with regard to the fate of the unhappy queen: he replied, that ſhe muſt ſuffer the ſame death that ſhe had inflicted on her huſband Andrew; and Durazzio ordered her to be ſmothered between two mattraſſes. Thus periſhed the famous Joan I. queen of Naples, whoſe life, character, and cataſtrophe, have a ſingular reſemblance to thoſe of the unfortunate Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland.

A. D. 1399.

Mean time Winceſlaus gave himſelf up to all manner of debauchery, and ſeemed induſtrious in acquiring the implacable hatred of his ſubjects, by the cruelties which he exerciſed upon people of all ranks. On account of theſe irregularities, and of ſelling the rights of the empire, the electors depoſed Winceſlaus, and raiſed to the imperial dignity Robert count palatine in his place.

Winceſlaus was ſo little mortified at the news of his depoſition, that when he received the intelligence

telligence, he only requeſted, as a laſt mark of the fidelity of the imperial cities, that they would ſend him ſome butts of their wine.

About this time Bohemia was involved in many diſorders by the preaching of John Huſs, rector of the univerſity of Prague, who had embraced the opinions of Wickliffe, and was excommunicated by the pope.

The Roman church not only ſuffered from thoſe innovations, but alſo continued in a ſtate of diſtraction from the ſchiſm which ſtill remained, and which the emperor attempted in vain to cement. Gregory XII. who was acknowledged pope in Italy, convened a council in Aquileia. Benedict XIII. who was owned in France, held another council at Catalonia; and the cardinals convoked a third at Piſa. The cardinals, however, proceeded to the depoſition of the two popes, and raiſed to the apoſtolic chair Alexander V. by which means the ſchiſm was encreaſed, there being now three popes inſtead of two. A. D. 1410.

Robert died before he was able to ſettle the affairs of the holy ſee. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Sigiſmund, brother to the depoſed Winceſlaus, and king of Hungary, a prince of experience and abilities, and whoſe firſt care was to heal the wounds of the church. For this purpoſe he convoked a general council at Conſtance, with the concurrence of pope John XXIII. ſucceſſor of Alexander. A. D. 1414.

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At this council, where Sigiſmund appeared in all his glory, were preſent a prodigious number of cardinals, prelates, doctors, more than a hundred ſovereign princes, one hundred and eight counts, two hundred barons, and twenty-ſeven ambaſſadors from the ſeveral courts of Europe, who all vied with each other in luxury and magnificence.

A. D. 1414.

In the firſt ſeſſions, the fathers of the council concluded, that nothing could ſo effectually contribute to re-eſtabliſh the union of the church, as the reſignation of the competitors for the papacy. John XXIII. who preſided in the council, aſſented to this opinion, and promiſed to renounce his title; but afterwards repented of his condeſcenſion, and fled from Conſtance in the night, diſguiſed in the habit of a poſtilion.

But the council unanimouſly agreed that John, together with his competitors, Carrario, who had aſſumed the name of Gregory XII. and Peter de Luna, diſtinguiſhed by that of Benedict XIII. ſhould be for ever excluded from the papacy. Carrario and John thought proper to yield to the torrent; but the proud Spaniard Peter de Luna would not acquieſce, and he remained obſtinate to the laſt. However, the council pronounced the ſentence of his depoſition, and proceeded to the election of a new pope. Otho Colonna, who poſſeſſed the accompliſhments of a prince, and the

A D. 1411.

virtues

virtues of a prelate, was unanimouſly choſen on St. Martin's day, whence he took the name of Martin V. CHAP. XXVIII.

The affair of John Huſs came next upon the carpet. John provided with the emperor's ſafe-conduct, appeared at the council of Conſtance, in order to juſtify the doctrine he profeſſed. He was accordingly queſtioned, in preſence of Sigiſmund, and accuſed of hereſy in thirty-nine articles; which on his refuſing to abjure, he was immediately declared a ſower of ſedition, a hardened heretic, a diſciple and defender of Wickliffe. As ſuch he was delivered over to the ſecular judge, who condemned him and his writings to the flames, and he ſuffered with great conſtancy.

Some months afterwards, the council exerciſed the ſame ſeverity againſt a diſciple and friend of John Huſs, named Jerome of Prague: this man was greatly ſuperior in underſtanding and eloquence to Huſs. He, at firſt had ſubſcribed to the condemnation of his maſter's doctrine; but being informed with what greatneſs of ſoul Huſs had encountered death, he was aſhamed to ſurvive him; and having made a public retraction, was conſigned to the flames. The huſſites revenged the death of their apoſtle by the moſt terrible outrages. Ziſca their leader, defeated the emperor Sigiſmund, who had ſucceeded his brother in the kingdom of Bohemia, in ſeveral engagements; and when dying, he ordered a drum to be made

of

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of his ſkin, which was long the ſymbol of victory.

A. D. 1438.

Sigiſmund, on his death bed, nominated as his ſucceſſor in the kingdom of Hungary and Bohemia, Albert, duke of Auſtria, his ſon-in-law, who was recognized by theſe ſtates, and alſo raiſed to the empire. The houſe of Auſtria has ever ſince preſerved the imperial throne.

CHAP. XXIX.

France from the Death of Charles V. to the Invaſion of that Kingdom by Henry V. of England.

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A. D. 1379.

THE death of Charles V. of France, which happened ſoon after that of Edward III. of England, put the two kingdoms into ſimilar ſituations. Both were under the government of minors; and the jealouſies between the three uncles of Charles V. the dukes of Anjou, Berry, and Burgundy, diſtracted the affairs of France, even more than the rivalry between the three uncles of Richard II. diſordered thoſe of England.

But, in proportion as the king advanced in years, the factions were compoſed. His uncle, the duke of Anjou, died, and Charles himſelf aſſuming the reigns of government, diſcovered ſymptoms of genius and ſpirit which revived the drooping hopes of his countrymen. But this promiſing ſtate of things was of ſhort duration: the unhappy Charles fell ſuddenly into a fit of frenzy, which rendered him incapable of exerciſing his authority; and though he partly recovered from this diſorder, he was ſubject to ſuch frequent relapſes, that his judgment was gradually impaired, and he became incapable of purſuing any ſteady plan of government.

The

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The adminiſtration fell again into the hands of the dukes of Berry and Burgundy, who excluded the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, under pretence of his youth, from any ſhare in the government, and even from the ſhadow of authority.

While things were in this ſituation, the duke of Burgundy died. He was ſucceeded in the duchy by his ſon, John count of Neven, who diſputed the adminiſtration with the duke of Orleans, now riſing into credit, and hoped to govern France as his father had done.

The people were divided between theſe contending princes; and the king now reſuming, and now dropping his authority, kept the victory undecided. At length the two princes agreed to bury all paſt quarrels in oblivion, and ſwore before the altar to the ſincerity of their intention; but this ſolemn preparation was only a cover for the baſeſt treachery, deliberately premeditated by the duke of Burgundy. He had hired ruffians, who aſſaſſinated his rival in the ſtreets of Paris. The princes of the blood, combining with the young duke of Orleans and his brothers, made violent war on the duke of Burgundy; and the unhappy king, ſeized ſometimes by one party, ſometimes by another, tranſferred alternately to each of them the appearance of legal authority.

Henry

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Henry V. king of England, impelled by the vigour of youth and the ardour of ambition, determined to take advantage of theſe confuſions, and to carry war into the heart of France. In conſequence of this reſolution, he aſſembled a great fleet and army at Southampton, and invited all the military men in the kingdom to attend him. But before we ſpeak of the ſucceſs of that enterpriſe, it will be neceſſary to ſay a few words of the reign of Henry V. prior to that period. A. D. 1415.

CHAP. XXX.

England and France, from the Invaſion of the latter Kingdom by Henry V. to the final Expulſion of the Engliſh.

CHAP. LXX. THE precarious ſituation of Henry IV. had ſo much infected his temper with jealouſy, that he entertained unreaſonable ſuſpicions with regard to the fidelity of his eldeſt ſon; and during the latter years of his life, he excluded that prince from all ſhare in public buſineſs. The active ſpirit of young Henry, reſtrained from its proper exerciſe, broke out into extravagancies of every kind: the riot of pleaſure, the frolic of debauchery, and the outrage of intoxication, filled the vacancies of a mind better adapted to the purſuits of ambition, and the cares of government. But the nation in general viewed the young prince with indulgent eyes. They obſerved ſo many gleams of generoſity, ſpirit, and magnanimity breaking continually through the cloud which a wild conduct threw over his character, that they never ceaſed hoping for his amendment; and the firſt ſtep taken by young Henry, after his father's death, confirmed all thoſe prepoſſeſſions entertained in his favour. He called together his former companions, acquainted them with his intended reformation, exhorted

exhorted them to follow his example; but ſtrictly prohibited them, until they had given proofs of amendment, from appearing any more in his preſence; while the wiſe miniſters of his father, who had checked his riots, were received with all the marks of favour and confidence. CHAP. XXX.

Having ſettled the affairs of his kingdom, Henry had leiſure to turn his thoughts towards France, where the civil diſorder, as has been already mentioned, opened a full career for his ambition. He accordingly ſet ſail from Southampton, the place of general rendezvous, and landed near Harfleur, at the head of an army of thirty thouſand men, moſtly archers. Henry immediately inveſted Harfleur; which was taken by aſſault, after a ſiege of ſix weeks, and the garriſon put to the ſword. The fatigue of this ſiege, and the unuſual heat of the ſeaſon, had ſo much waſted the engliſh army, that Henry was obliged to think of returning to England. He had diſmiſſed his tranſports, ſo that he lay under the neceſſity of marching by land to Calais, before he could reach a place of ſafety. A. D. 1415.

A numerous army of ſixty thouſand men, was by this time aſſembled in Normandy, under the conſtable d'Albert. Henry, therefore, was continually harraſſed in his march, by flying parties of the enemy; and when he approached the Somme, he ſaw bodies of troops on the oppoſite banks, ready to obſtruct his paſſage. His proviſions

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ſions were cut off; his ſoldiers languiſhed with ſickneſs and fatigue; and his ſituation ſeemed altogether deſperate. In this extremity he was ſo fortunate as to ſeize an unguarded ford, over which he ſafely paſſed, and bent his march towards Calais. But the whole French army was drawn up on the plains of Agincourt, poſted in ſuch a manner, that it was impoſſible for him to proceed on his march, without coming to an engagement.

Nothing in appearance could be more unequal than the battle, upon which the ſafety and honour of Henry now depended. The engliſh army laboured under every diſcouragement. The enemy was four times more numerous, headed by the dauphin, and all the princes of the blood, and plentifully ſupplied with proviſions. Henry's ſituation was exactly ſimilar to that of Edward at Creſſy, and of the Black Prince, at Portiers. He obſerved alſo the ſame prudent conduct, which had been followed by thoſe great commanders. He drew up his army on a narrow ground, between two woods, which guarded each flank. In that poſture he patiently waited the attack of the enemy.

Had the french commander been able to reaſon juſtly on the circumſtances of the two armies, or to profit by paſt experience, he would have declined a combat, and have waited till neceſſity had obliged the engliſh to advance and relinquiſh the advantages of ſituation; but the impetuous

valour

valour of the french nobility, and a vain confidence in ſuperior numbers, made him hazard an action, which proved the ſource of infinite calamities to his country. CHAP. XXX. A. D. 1415.

No victory was ever more honourable, or more complete, than that of Agincourt. The loſs of the french was incredibly great. The conſtable d'Albert, and ſeven princes of the blood, were ſlain: five princes were taken priſoners, together with fourteen thouſand perſons of different ranks; and about ten thouſand frenchmen were left dead on the field of battle. Yet this victory, ſo fatal to France, was rather oſtentatious than uſeful to the conquerors, though their loſs was very inconſiderable. Henry was obliged to return to England, in order to raiſe a freſh ſupply of men and money; and it was not till after an interval of two years, that any body of engliſh troops appeared in France.

In the mean time, France was expoſed to all the furies of civil war; and the ſeveral parties became every day more enraged againſt each other. Bois Bourbon, favourite to queen Iſabella, having been accuſed by the count of Armagnac, of a commerce of gallantry with that princeſs, had been put to the torture, and afterwards thrown into the Seine. The queen herſelf was ſent to Tours, and confined under a guard. After ſuffering theſe multiplied inſults, ſhe no longer ſcrupled to enter into a correſpondence

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the duke of Burgundy; and as her ſon, Charles, the dauphin, was entirely governed by the faction of Armagnac, ſhe extended her animoſity even to him, and fought his deſtruction with the moſt unrelenting hatred.

The duke of Burgundy entered France, at the head of a great army of flemings, overun moſt part of the kingdom, and releaſed the queen from her confinement. He was afterwards ſlain by the dauphin's party, at an interview at Montereau. In conſequence of this act of barbarity, and the progreſs of Henry's arms, who had landed in Normandy, at the head of twenty thouſand men, the queen and the new duke of Burgundy, threatening vengeance for the murder of his father, concluded the famous treaty of Troye, by which the crown of France was transferred to the houſe of Lancaſter. The principal articles were, that Henry ſhould eſpouſe the princeſs Catharine; and that her father, Charles VI. ſhould enjoy, during his life time, the title and dignity of king of France; that Henry ſhould be declared and acknowledged heir of the monarchy, and be entruſted with the adminiſtration of the government.

A. D. 1420.

A few days after the ſigning of this treaty, Henry eſpouſed the princeſs Catharine. He carried his father-in-law to Paris; he put himſelf in poſſeſſion of that capital. He ſupported the duke of Burgundy, in procuring a ſentence againſt the

the murderers of his father, and he turned his arms with ſucceſs againſt the adherents of the dauphin. CHAP. XXX.

To crown all the proſperities of Henry, his queen was delivered of a ſon, who was called by his father's name. The infant prince ſeemed to be univerſally regarded as the heir of both monarchies. But the glory of Henry, when near its height, was ſuddenly reſtrained by the hand of nature; and all his towering projects vaniſhed into air. He was ſeized with a fiſtula, which proved mortal. He left the regency of France to his eldeſt brother, the duke of Bedford; that of England, to his younger brother, the duke of Glouceſter; and the care of his ſon's perſon to the earl of Warwick. A. D. 1422.

Henry V. poſſeſſed many eminent virtues, and his abilities were equally conſpicuous in the cabinet and the field. The boldneſs of his plans was no leſs remarkable than his perſonal valour in conducting them. He had the talent of attaching his friends by affability, and of gaining his enemies by addreſs and clemency.

In leſs than two months after Henry's death, his father-in-law, Charles VI. of France, terminated his unhappy life; and the dauphin was crowned at Poitiers, under the name of Charles VII. Rheims, the uſual place of ſuch ceremony, being in the hands of his enemies.

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Catharine of France, Henry's widow, married ſoon after his death, Sir Owen Tudor, a welch gentleman. She bore him two ſons, the eldeſt of whom was created earl of Richmond; the ſecond earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, firſt raiſed to diſtinction by this alliance, afterwards mounted, as we ſhall have occaſion to ſee, the engliſh throne.

The duke of Bedford, the moſt accompliſhed prince of his age, was intruſted with the adminiſtration. Obſerving the ardour of the ſcots to ſerve in France, where Charles treated them with great honour and diſtinction, he perſuaded the engliſh council to form an alliance with James I. their priſoner, to free that prince from his long captivity, and to connect him with England, by marrying him to a daughter of the earl of Somerſet, and couſin to the young king. The alliance was accordingly formed; James was reſtored to the throne of his anceſtors; proved, during his ſhort reign, one of the moſt illuſtrious princes that had ever ſwayed the ſcottiſh ſceptre. He was murdered by his traitorous kinſman, the earl of Athol, in 1437.

The duke of Bedford did not neglect the operations of war. He reduced almoſt every fortreſs on this ſide the Loire; and the battle of Verneuil, in which the ſcots and french were defeated, threatened Charles with the total loſs of his kingdom; when a train of ſingular circumſtances

ſtances ſaved him on the brink of ruin; and loſt the engliſh ſuch an opportunity of completing their conqueſts, that they were never afterwards able to recall. CHAP. XXX.

The regent reſolved on an undertaking, which, he hoped, would prepare the way for the final conqueſt of France.

The city of Orleans was ſo ſituated between the provinces commanded by Henry, and thoſe poſſeſſed by Charles, that it opened an eaſy entrance to either; and as the duke of Bedford intended to make a great effort for penetrating into the ſouth of France, it was neceſſary to begin with the ſiege of this place, now become the moſt important in the kingdom. The french king uſed every expedient to ſupply the city with a garriſon and proviſions, and the engliſh, left no method unemployed for reducing it. At length Orleans was on the point of ſurrendering, when it was unexpectedly ſaved by a woman. A. D. 1428.

In the village of Domeremi, near Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Lorrain, lived a country girl, of twenty-ſeven years of age, whoſe name was Joan d'Arc, and who, in the ſtation of ſervant to an inn, had been accuſtomed to attend the horſes of the gueſts, to ride them without ſaddle to the watering places, and to perform other offices, which commonly fall to the ſhare of men ſervants. This girl, inflamed by the frequent accounts of the rencounters at the ſiege of

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Orleans, and affected with the miſeries of her country, but more particularly with thoſe of the youthful monarch, whoſe gallantry made him the idol of the ſofter ſex, was ſeized with a wild deſire of bringing relief to her ſovereign, in his preſent unhappy circumſtances. Her inexperienced mind, working day and night on this favourite object, miſtook the impulſes of paſſion for heavenly inſpirations; and ſhe fancied ſhe ſaw viſions, and heard voices exhorting her to reeſtabliſh the throne of France, and expel the foreign invaders. She went to Vancoleurs, procured admiſſion to Baudricourt the governor, and informed him of her inſpirations and intentions.

A. D. 1429.

Baudricourt obſerved ſomething extraordinary in the maid, or the uſe that might be made of ſuch an engine, and ſent her to the french court, which then reſided at Chinon.

Joan was no ſooner introduced to the king, than ſhe offered to raiſe the ſiege of Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims, to be there crowned and anointed; and ſhe demanded, as the inſtrument of her future victories, a particular ſword, which was kept in the church of St. Catharine of Fierbois. The more the king and his miniſters were determined to give into the illuſion, the more ſcruples they pretended. An aſſembly of grave doctors and theologians were appointed to examine Joan's miſſion, who pronounced it undoubted and ſupernatural; and a jury of matrons declared

declared her an unſpotted virgin. Her requeſts were now granted. She was armed cap-a-pe, mounted, on horſeback, and ſhown in that martial habiliment to the whole people. CHAP. XXX.

The engliſh, at firſt, affected to ſpeak with deriſion of the maid, and her heavenly commiſſion; but they were ſecretly ſtruck with the ſtrong perſuaſion which prevailed in all around them; they found their courage daunted by degrees; and thence began to infer a divine vengeance hanging over them. A ſilent aſtoniſhment reigned among thoſe troops, formerly ſo elated with victory, and ſo fierce for combat. The maid entered the city of Orleans, at the head of a convoy, arrayed in her military garb, and diſplaying her conſecrated ſtandard. She was received as a celeſtial deliverer by the garriſon and inhabitants; and actually obliged the engliſh to raiſe the ſiege of that city, after defeating them in ſeveral attacks. The raiſing the ſiege of Orleans was one part of the maid's promiſe to Charles, the crowning him at Rheims was the other. She now declared it was time to complete that ceremony. He accordingly ſet out for Rheims at the head of twelve thouſand men; every place opened its gaets to him. Rheims ſent him its keys, and the ceremony of his coronation was therefore performed with the utmoſt ſolemnity.

Charles thus crowned and anointed, became more reſpectable in the eyes of all his ſubjects.

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Many places ſubmitted to him immediately after his coronation. The duke of Bedford, in this dangerous criſis, employed every reſource to prevent the bad conſequences of this infatuation. He brought over the young king of England, and had him crowned and anointed at Paris. But he expected more effect from an incident, which put into his hands the author of all his misfortunes. The maid of Orleans was taken priſoner in a ſally ſhe made from the town of Campeigne, at that time beſiged by the duke of Bedford; and the regent, reſolved upon her ruin, ordered her to be tried by an eccleſiaſtical court for ſorcery, impiety, idolatry, and magic. She was found guilty by her ignorant or iniquitous judges, of all theſe crimes, aggravated by hereſy. Her revelations were declared to be the invention of the devil, to delude the people; and this admirable heroine, to whom the more generous ſuperſtitions of the ancients would have erected altars, was delivered over alive to the flames, and expiated by that dreadful puniſhment, the ſignal ſervices which ſhe had rendered to her prince, and her native country.

A. D. 1431.

The affairs of the engliſh, however, inſtead of being advanced by this act of cruelty, went every day more and more to decay. The duke of Burgundy deſerted the intereſts of the engliſh, and formed an alliance with the french king: the duke of Bedford died ſoon after; and the violent factions,

factions, which prevailed in the court of England between the duke of Glouceſter and the cardinal of Wincheſter, prevented the engliſh from taking proper meaſures for repairing their loſſes; and they were expelled from all their poſſeſſions on the continent, except Calais. CHAP. XXX.

As Henry VI. had now reached the years of manhood; it was neceſſary to think of chuſing him a queen: he was therefore contracted to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular king of Sicily, Naples, and Jeruſalem; deſcended from a count of Anjou, who had left theſe magnificent titles to his poſterity, without any real power or poſſeſſion. The treaty of marriage was ratified in England, and Margaret fell immediately into cloſe connection with the cardinal and his party; who fortified, by her powerful patronage, reſolved on the final ruin of the duke of Glouceſter. The firſt ſtep taken was to accuſe his dutcheſs of witchcraft; for which ſhe was condemned to do public penance, and ſuffer perpetual impriſonment. The duke was next accuſed of treaſon, and thrown into priſon: where he was ſoon after found dead in his bed; and no one doubted but he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. Thus was England torn to pieces by civil diſſentions; and Charles, occupied at home in regulating the government, and fencing againſt the intrigues of his ſon Lewis, ſcarcely ever attempted to avail himſelf

A. D. 1443.

A. D. 1449.

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himſelf of her inteſtine broils. The affairs of the two kingdoms, therefore, became for a while diſtinct. But before we carry further the hiſtory of either, it will be neceſſary to take a view of the ſtate of the empire, from the death of Sigiſmund till the acceſſion of Maximilian.

CHAP. XXXI.

The German Empire, and Italy, from the Death of Sigiſmund, to the Acceſſion of Maximilian.

SIGISMUND was ſucceeded in the kingdom of Hungary and Bohemia, and alſo the empire, as has been already obſerved, by his ſon in law Albert, the ſecond duke of Auſtria. The only enterpriſe of moment in which this prince was engaged, during his ſhort reign, was an expedition againſt the Turks in Bulgaria; where he was ſeized with a dyſentry, before an action took place, and died at the village of Long, in his return to Vienna. CHAP. XXXI.

Albert was ſucceeded in the imperial throne by his couſin Frederick of Auſtria, the third emperor of that name. The kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia were ſettled on Ladiſlaus, Albert's infant ſon, who was committed to the guardianſhip of Frederick.

The emperor's firſt care was to heal the ſchiſm, which ſtill continued in the church. For this purpoſe he ſet out for Baſil, where the council was yet aſſembled, and had raiſed to the papacy Amadeus, duke of Savoy, under the name of Felix V. in oppoſition to Eugenius IV. But Frederick prevailed upon Felix to abdicate the apoſtolic chair, on certain conditions; which were confirmed

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confirmed by Nicholas V. who had ſucceeded Eugenius.

The peace of the church being thus reſtored, Frederick marched into Italy, where the imperial authority was gone into utter decay. Milan was in the hands of Francis Sforza, a peaſant's ſon, but one of the greateſt warriors of his age, and now become the moſt powerful man in Italy. He ſent ambaſſadors to the emperor, inviting him to that city, where he ſhould receive the iron crown. From Milan, Frederick proceeded to Viterbo, where he was in danger of his life from a tumult of the people; ſo indifferently attended was this ſucceſſor of Charlemagne. From Veterbo he repaired to Rome,

A. D. 1452.

where he received the imperial crown from the hand of the pope. Having tranſacted matters at Rome, Frederick departed on his return to Germany, where he found himſelf involved in a number of difficulties, out of which he was never able fully to extricate himſelf.

In the mean time, Ladiſlaws, king of Hungary, and Bohemia, died, and various competitors aroſe for thoſe crowns. Among theſe was the emperor Frederick, who reaped nothing but damage and diſgrace from a civil war, which deſolated Germany for many years; but which was productive of no events that merits our attention. His ſon, Maximilian, was more fortunate, and better deſerved ſucceſs.

This

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This young prince, who was active and enterprising as his father was indolent and timid, married at twenty years of age, the only daughter of Charles the Rash, duke of Burgundy, who brought him Flanders, Franche Compte, and all the Low Countries.

About this time died pope Innocent VIII. who was succeeded in the papacy by Roderick Borgia, under the name of Alexander VI. Nor did the emperor Frederick long survive these alterations. A. D. 1492.

The reign of Maximilian, already elected king of the romans, forms a more interesting period than that over which we have now travelled, and opens a vista into some of the grandest scenes in history. But a variety of objects must occupy our attention, before we carry further the affairs of the empire.

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CHAP. XXXII.

England, during the Conteſt between the Houſes of York and Lancaſter, till the Acceſſion of the Houſe of Tudor.

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A. D. 1450.

IN proportion as Henry VI. advanced in years, his incapacity appeared every day in a fuller light; the more he was known, the more his authority was deſpiſed; and as the engliſh had abandoned their dominions in France, and were now engaged in no foreign wars; men of reſtleſs and ambitious ſpirits took occaſion to diſturb his government, and tear the bowels of their native country.

But the miſeries of Henry and of England, did not ariſe alone from theſe cauſes; a pretender to the crown appeared; and a title which had never been diſputed during the proſperous reign of Henry V. was now called in queſtion under his feeble ſucceſſor. This competitor was Richard, duke of York, deſcended by his mother from Philippa, only daughter of the duke of Clarence, ſecond ſon of Edward III. and conſequently ſtood in the order of ſucceſſion before the king who derived his deſcent from the duke of Lancaſter, third ſon of that monarch.

Such

Such a claim could not, in many reſpects, have fallen into more dangerous hands. The duke of York was a man of valour and abilities, generally beloved by the people; whoſe diſcontents, at this time, rendering every combination of the great more alarming to the throne. CHAP. XXXII.

Adminiſtration was now in the hands of the queen; and the earl of Suffolk, who had attracted univerſal odium. Margaret was ſtill regarded as a french woman, and a latent enemy to the kingdom, who had betrayed the intereſts of England, in favour of her family and her country. Suffolk was conſidered as her accomplice; and the murder of the duke of Glouceſter, in which both were known to have been concerned, rendered them yet more obnoxious to the nation.

The partiſans of the duke of York took advantage of theſe topics of popular diſcontents, to impeach the earl of Suffolk in parliament, of various crimes and miſdemeanors; and the king, in order to ſave his miniſter, baniſhed him the kingdom during five years. But his enemies, ſenſible that he would be recalled on the firſt opportunity, employed the captain of a ſhip to intercept him in his paſſage to France. He was accordingly ſeized near Dover, his head was ſtruck off on the ſide of a long boat, and his body thrown into the ſea.

Henry fell about this time into a diſtemper, which encreaſed his natural imbecility; and the queen

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queen and the council, unable to reſiſt the popular party, were obliged to appoint the duke of York, lieutenant of the kingdom, with powers to open and hold a ſeſſion of parliament, and that aſſembly created him protector during pleaſure.

In the mean time, Henry recovering from his diſtemper, ſo far as to be able to maintain the appearance of royal authority, his friends urged him to reſume the government, and to annul the regency of Richard. The duke of York, ſenſible of his danger, levied an army, in order to ſupport his parliamentary commiſſion. A battle

A. D. 1455.

was fought near St. Alban's, where the lancaſtrians were routed, and the king himſelf taken priſoner by the duke, who treated him with great tenderneſs. Richard, however, did not yet lay claim to royalty; he was ſtill content with the title of protector; and an outward reconciliation took place between the parties. But a conteſt for a crown could not be thus peaceably accommodated; both ſides openly prepared to decide the diſpute by arms.

A battle was fought near Blore-heath, where the lancaſtrians were again defeated. But that victory was not ſufficient to decide the fate of England, and fortune ſoon ſhifted ſides. When the two armies approached each other, near Ludlow, and a general action was every hour expected, Sir Andrew Trollop, who commanded a choice

choice body of veterans, deſerted to the king; and the yorkiſts were ſo much diſmayed at this inſtance of treachery, that they ſeparated, without ſtriking a blow. CHAP. XXXII.

In this extremity the duke of York fled to Ireland, and his partiſans in England, kept themſelves every where in readineſs, to riſe on the firſt ſummons of their leaders. That ſummons was given by the earl of Warwick, governor of Calais, the moſt extraordinary man of his time, and commonly known by the name of the king-maker. He landed in Kent, where he was joined by ſeveral perſons of diſtinction; and his army encreaſed every day. He advanced to meet the royal army, and a battle was fought at Northampton, where the lancaſtrians were totally routed. Henry himſelf, that empty ſhadow of a king, was again made priſoner, and once more carried in triumph to his capital. A. D. 1460.

A parliament was now ſummoned at Weſtminſter, where the duke of York ſoon appeared from Ireland, and put in his claim to the crown. It was there ſolemnly debated, each ſide producing their reaſons, without fear or controul. The duke of York, though a conqueror, could not entirely gain his cauſe. It was determined, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne during his life; and that the duke of York ſhould be appointed his ſucceſſor, to the utter excluſion of the prince of Wales.

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After the unfortunate battle of Northampton, queen Margaret had fled with her infant ſon to Durham. Her affability, inſinuation, and addreſs, talents in which ſhe excelled, wrought ſo powerfully on the nobility of that quarter, that ſhe ſoon found herſelf at the head of an army of twenty thouſand men, and collected with a celerity, which was neither expected by her friends, or apprehended by her enemies.

In the mean time the duke of York haſtened northward, with a body of five thouſand men, to ſuppreſs, as he imagined, the beginning of an inſurrection. He met the queen near Wakefield, gave her battle, and was killed in the action. His body was found among the ſlain: his head was cut off by Margaret's orders, and fixed on the gates of York, with a paper crown upon it, in deriſion of his pretended title. Immediately after this importat victory, queen Margaret marched towards London, where the earl of Warwick was left with the command of the yorkiſts. On the approach of the lancaſtrians, that nobleman led out his army, and gave the queen battle at St. Alban's. Margaret was again victorious; ſhe had the pleaſure of ſeeing the formidable Warwick fly before her, and of reſcuing the king, her huſband, from captivity.

A. D. 1461.

But Margaret's triumph, though glorious, was of ſhort duration, and not altogether complete. Warwick was ſtill in poſſeſſion of London, on which

which ſhe made an unſucceſsful attempt; and Edward, earl of Marche, eldeſt ſon of the late duke of York, advanced upon her from the other ſide, and was ſoon in a condition of giving her battle, with ſuperior forces. CHAP. XXXII.

She was ſenſible of her danger in ſuch a ſituation, and retreated with her army to the north; while Edward entered the capital, amid the acclamations of the citizens, who proclaimed him king, under the title of Edward IV. and this popular election was ratified by an aſſembly of lords and biſhops.

Young Edward, now in his twentieth year, was of a temper well fitted to make his way through ſuch a ſcene of war, havock, and devaſtation, as was preſented before him. He was not only bold, active and enterpriſing, but his hardineſs of heart, and ſeverity of character, rendered him impregnable to all thoſe movements of compaſſion, which might relax his vigour in the proſecution of the moſt bloody deſign upon his enemies. Hence the ſcaffold, as well as the field, during this reign, inceſſantly ſmoaked with the nobleſt blood of England. The animoſity between the two contending families, was now become implacable; and the nation, divided in its affections, took different ſimbols of party. The adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter choſe, as their mark of diſtinction, a *red roſe*; thoſe of York the *white*; and theſe civil wars were thus

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known over Europe by the name of the quarrel between the two roſes.

Queen Margaret having aſſembled an army of ſixty thouſand men in the north, the king and Warwick haſtened with a force of forty thouſand men, to check her progreſs. The two armies met at Toutòn, and a fierce and bloody battle enſued; which ended in the total defeat of the lancaſtrians. Henry and Margaret had remained at York during the action; but hearing the fate of their army, they fled with great precipitation into Scotland.

We muſt here ſay a few words of the ſtate of that country. James I. who was long a priſoner in England, avoided all hoſtilities with foreign nations. His ſon and ſucceſſor James II. was killed by the burſting of a cannon at the ſiege of Roxbury. James III. who was yet a minor, ſucceeded his father; and the diſtractions common to minorities enſued in the government; ſo that

A. D. 1464.

Margaret, when ſhe arrived in Scotland, found there a people little leſs divided by faction than thoſe from whom ſhe fled.

The ſcottiſh council, however, agreed to aſſiſt Margaret with a few troops; and ſhe ventured once more to take the field; but her little army was ſoon after totally routed by lord Montacute. Margaret fled with her ſon into a foreſt, where ſhe endeavoured to conceal herſelf; but was beſet during the darkneſs of the night by robbers,

robbers, who deſpoiled her of her jewels, and treated her with the utmoſt indignity. She at length, by the aſſiſtance of one of them, to whom ſhe made known her ſtation eſcaped to her father in Flanders. Henry was leſs fortunate; he lay concealed during a twelvemonth in Lancaſhire; but was at laſt detected, delivered up to Edward, and thrown into the tower. CHAP. XXXII.

The youthful monarch, thus rid of all his enemies, reſolved to marry, in order to ſecure his throne by iſſue, as well as alliances; and he caſt his eye on Bona of Savoy, ſiſter to the queen of France. The negociation was committed to the earl of Warwick, who went over to Paris, where the princeſs then reſided; his propoſals were accepted, and the treaty was fully concluded. But whilſt the earl was haſtening the negociation in France, the king himſelf rendered it abortive, by marrying Elizabeth Woodville, with whom he had fallen in love.

Warwick no ſooner received intelligence of the king's marriage, than he returned to England, flaming with rage and indignation, of being employed in a deceitful treaty. The king was ſenſible that Warwick had been ill uſed; but his pride, or falſe ſhame, prevented him from making an apology; that nobleman was therefore permitted to depart the court in the ſame bad humour that he came. The advancement of the queen's relations into offices of power and truſt, to the

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excluſion of thoſe of Warwick, heightened the diſcontent, and made him reſolve to ruin that king he had made.

In order to effect this purpoſe, Warwick drew over to his intereſt the duke of Clarence, the king's ſecond brother, by offering him in marriage his eldeſt daughter, and coheireſs of his immenſe fortunes. He alſo entered into a league with queen Margaret, his inveterate enemy; which brought him the whole body of lancaſtrians. Both parties now prepared for a general deciſion by arms; and a deciſive action was every moment expected; when Edward finding himſelf betrayed by the marquis of Montague, and ſuſpicious of other commanders, ſuddenly abandoned his army, and fled to Holland. Henry VI. was taken from his confinement in the tower, and placed once more upon the throne; and a parliament called under the influence of Warwick, declared Edward IV. an uſurper.

But this revolution was only the effect of the giddineſs of faction. Warwick was no ſooner at the helm of government, than his popularity began to decline. The king was emboldened to return; and though he brought with him only two thouſand men, he ſoon found himſelf in a condition to face the earl of Warwick, who had taken poſt at Barnet. The city of London opened its gates to Edward, who thus became at once maſter of his capital, and of the perſon of his rival Henry,

Henry, doomed to be the perpetual ſport of fortune. In the mean time, the duke of Clarence, Warwick's ſon in law, deſerted to the king, and carried along with him a body of twelve thouſand men. But Warwick was now too far advanced to retreat, and was therefore obliged to hazard a general engagement. The battle was fought with great obſtinacy on both ſides. At length the yorkiſts prevailed, and Warwick fell, covered with a multitude of wounds. CHAP. XXXII. A. D. 1471.

Queen Margaret and her ſon prince Edward, now about eighteen years of age, landed from France the ſame day on which the battle was fought. She had hitherto ſuſtained the ſhocks of fortune with ſurpriſing fortitude; but when ſhe received intelligence of her huſband's captivity, and of the defeat and death of the earl of Warwick, her courage failed her. Encouraged, however, by the appearance of Tudor earl of Pembroke, who exhorted her ſtill to hope for ſucceſs, ſhe reſumed her former ſpirits, aſſembled an army, fought Edward at Tewkeſbury, on the banks of the Severn, where the lancaſtrians were totally defeated. Margaret and her ſon were taken priſoners, and brought to the king, who aſked the prince in an imperious tone, how he dared to invade his dominions. "I came hither," replied the undaunted youth, more mindful of his high birth than his preſent fortune, "to revenge my father's wrongs, and reſcue my juſt in-

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"heritance out of your hands." Incenſed at his freedom, inſtead of admiring the boldneſs of his ſpirit, the ungenerous Edward ſtruck him on the face with his gauntlet; and the duke of Clarence and Glouceſter taking this blow for a ſignal of further violence, inſtantly diſpatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the tower, where her huſband Henry had juſt expired; and it is generally believed that the duke of Glouceſter killed him with his own hands.

A. D. 1474.

The hopes of the houſe of Lancaſter being thus extinguiſhed, Edward projected the invaſion of France, in order to recover the dominions loſt under his predeceſſor. He accordingly paſſed over to Calais with an army of ſixteen thouſand men. Lewis XI. alarmed at the preſence of ſo warlike and powerful a monarch as Edward, propoſed an accommodation, and a truce was concluded on terms by no means honourable to France. Lewis ſtipulated to pay the king of England, immediately, ſeventy-five thouſand crowns, on condition that he ſhould withdraw his army, and fifty thouſand a year during their joint lives.

The moſt honourable article on the ſide of Lewis, was the ſtipulation for the liberty of queen Margaret. Lewis paid fifty thouſand crowns for her ranſom; and this princeſs, who had experienced ſuch a variety of fortune in the active ſcenes of life, paſſed the remainder of her days in tranquility and privacy.

The

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The duke of Clarence, by all his ſervices in deſerting Warwick, had never been able to regain the king's friendſhip. He had alſo the misfortune to offend his brother Glouceſter, who ſecretly conſpired his ruin. Several of his friends were accuſed and executed under frivolous pretences, in hopes that his reſentment would betray him into meaſures which might furniſh matter for an impeachment. He fell into the ſnare: the king ordered him to be committed to the tower; and he was ſentenced to die by the ſupreme tribunal of the nation. The only favour which the king granted him, was the choice of his death; and he was privately drowned by his own deſire, in a butt of Malmſey.

A. D. 1483.

The remaining part of Edward's reign was diſtinguiſhed by no remarkable events. He died of a violent diſtemper, in the forty-ſecond year of his age. As a man, he poſſeſſed many accompliſhments; his virtues were few, his vices almoſt the whole catalogue.

Edward left two ſons, the prince of Wales, now Edward V. in his thirteenth year, and Richard, duke of York, in his ninth. The duke of Glouceſter, their uncle, whoſe ſanguinary diſpoſition we have had occaſion to take notice of, was appointed regent by Edward's deſire, and choſen protector by his own artifice. He had already got the two young princes into his poſſeſſion, and his eyes was fixed upon the throne,

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throne, though not only the ſons of Edward, but thoſe of the duke of Clarence ſtood between him and it.

That he might remove every obſtruction, he ordered the earl of Rivers, the queen's brother, to be thrown into priſon, and executed without any form of trial. His next ſtep was to draw into his views the duke of Buckingham and lord Haſtings. With the firſt he ſucceeded; but the laſt remained firm in his allegiance to the children of Edward. His death was therefore reſolved upon; and for that purpoſe a council was ſummoned in the tower, whither that nobleman, ſuſpecting no harm, repaired without heſitation.

Glouceſter, on taking his place at the council-board, appeared in the eaſieſt and moſt facetious manner imaginable; but making a pretence ſoon after to retire, he returned knitting his brows, and ſhewing, by frequent alterations of his countenance, ſome inward perturbations. "What "puniſhment do they deſerve," ſaid he, "who "have conſpired againſt my life?" "The "death of a traytor," replied lord Haſtings. "Theſe traitors," cried Richard, "are the "ſorcereſs my brother's wife, Jane Shore, with "others their aſſociates! See to what a condi-"tion they have reduced me by their ſpells and "incantations!" laying bare his arm all ſhri-"velled and decayed. The amazement of the

council

council was encreaſed; it being well known this infirmity had attended him from his childhood. CHAP XXXII.
"Certainly," ſaid lord Haſtings, "if they are "guilty of ſuch a crime, they deſerve puniſh-"ment." "And do you," exclaimed Richard, "reply to me with your ifs? you are yourſelf a "traitor; and I ſwear by St. Paul, that I will "not dine before your head be brought to me." He ſtruck the table with his hand; armed men ruſhed in at the ſignal; Haſtings was ſeized, hurried away, and inſtantly beheaded on a log of wood which accidentally lay in the court-yard of the tower.

After the murder of Haſtings, Richard no longer made a ſecret of his intentions to uſurp the crown. As a colour to his pretenſions, he not only maintained that his two nephews were illegitimate, but alſo his two brothers, Edward IV. and the duke of Clarence. He procured an aſſembly of the citizens of London at Guildhall, where the duke of Buckingham addreſſed them in an elegant harangue, ſetting forth the title and virtues of the protector; and, "God ſave "king Richard" was at laſt returned by the mob. The ſentiments of the nation were now ſufficiently declared: the voice of the people was the voice of God. Richard was prevailed upon, though with ſeeming reluctance, to accept of the crown; and he henceforth acted as legitimate and lawful ſovereign.

This

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This ridiculous farce was ſoon followed by a ſcene truly tragical; the murder of the two young princes. The tyrant employed Sir James Tyrrel to execute this barbarous commiſſion. Tyrrel hired three ruffians, whom he conducted about midnight to the apartment of the princes, and had them ſuffocated with bolſters and pillows. Their bodies were burried at the foot of the ſtair-caſe under a heap of ruins.

Richard having thus extirpated all whom he feared might diſturb his government, endeavoured to gain, by favour, thoſe whom he thought could give ſtability to his throne. Several noblemen received new honours, and lord Stanley, who had been confined, was ſet at liberty, and made ſteward of the houſehold. But Richard's danger aroſe from a quarter whence he leaſt expected it. The duke of Buckingham did not think himſelf ſufficiently rewarded for his paſt ſervices, in promoting the uſurpation; he obſerved the general deteſtation, he therefore turned his eyes towards the young earl of Richmond, now an exile in Britanny, as the only perſon capable of forcing the nation from the tyranny under which it groaned.

Henry earl of Richmond, was grandſon of Sir Owen Tudor, and Catharine of France, relict of Henry V. By his mother he was deſcended from John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, ſon of Edward III. and in order to ſtrengthen his intereſt,

tereſt, a match was concerted between him and Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of Edward IV. CHAP. XXXII.

But ſo extenſive a conſpiracy could not eſcape the jealous and vigilant eye of Richard. He ſoon received intelligence of the duke of Buckingham's deſigns, and had that nobleman arreſted, condemned, and executed. Meantime Richmond appeared on the coaſt of England with a body of five thouſand men; but hearing of the fate of Buckingham, he returned to the coaſt of Britanny. But he ſoon reſolved upon a new invaſion. All men of probity and honour, he was aſſured, were earneſt to prevent the ſceptre from being any longer polluted by that bloody and faithleſs hand which held it. In conſequence of this opinion, he ſet ſail from Harfleur, in Normandy, with a retinue of about two thouſand men, and landed in Milford Haven, in Wales. The welch, who conſidered him as their countryman, flocked to his ſtandard, and his cauſe immediately wore a favourable aſpect.

Richard, who knew not in what quarter he might expect the invader, had taken poſt at Nottingham, in the center of the kingdom; but the danger to which he was chiefly expoſed, proceeded from the infidelity of his pretended friends. Scarce any nobleman was attached to his cauſe, except the duke of Norfolk; and ſome who had feigned the greateſt loyalty, were only watching for a favourable opportunity to betray

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betray and abandon him. Among theſe was lord Stanley. He had raiſed a powerful body of his friends and retinue, but without openly declaring himſelf; his ſon being in the tyrant's power. The two armies met at Boſworth, near Leiceſter. Henry's army conſiſted of ſix thouſand men, Richard's of double that number; and he haſtened to decide by arms the quarrel with his competitor.

A. D. 1485.

Soon after the battle began, lord Stanley appeared in the field, and declared for the earl of Richmond. The intrepid tyrant now ſenſible of his deſperate ſituation, and deſcrying his rival at no great diſtance, attempted to decide the victory by a blow. He killed, with his own hand, Sir William Brandon, ſtandard-bearer to the earl; he diſmounted Sir John Cheney, and though ſurrounded by his enemies, and overwhelmed by numbers, he ſtill maintained the combat; and at laſt ſunk amid heaps of ſlain, who had fallen by his arm. A life ſo infamous did not merit ſo glorious a death.

This battle was entirely deciſive; not only the king was ſlain, but the whole royal army totally routed and diſperſed. The victorious troops, in a tranſport of joy, beſtowed on their general the appellation of king; and, "long live Henry the "ſeventh," was reſounded from all quarters, with repeated acclamations: his title was confirmed by the parliament; and his marriage with the

the princeſs Elizabeth, which took place ſoon after, united the jarring claims of the houſes of York and Lancaſter. Thus ended the race of plantagenets, who ſat upwards of three hundred years on the throne of England, and thus the civil wars, which had ſo long deſolated the kingdom.

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CHAP. XXXIII.

France, from the Expulſion of the Engliſh, by Charles VII. to the Invaſion of Italy, by Charles VIII.

CHAP. XXXIII.

WHILE England was torn in pieces by civil wars, France was encreaſing both in power and dominion. Charles VII. had reunited moſt of the great fiefs to the crown; he eſtabliſhed a conſiderable military force, and the finances were able to ſupport it. Theſe meaſures were followed by the moſt important conſequences. An army always at command gave vigour to the royal authority: the poſſeſſors of fiefs were no longer called upon; they no longer had any pretence for arming their followers to diſturb the peace of the ſtate; the feudal policy went rapidly to decay in France, and Charles beheld himſelf at the head of the largeſt and beſt regulated kingdom in Europe.

But all the wiſdom and generoſity of this great monarch could not ſecure him that happineſs which he endeavoured to procure for his ſubjects. His ſon Lewis revolted, and embittered his days with ſorrow; and brought him to an untimely grave. Informed that the prince intended taking him off by poiſon, he abſtained from

from all food, till it was too late; and literally died of hunger, leſt his unnatural ſon ſhould be guilty of parricide. CHAP. XXXIII.

A. D. 1461.

Lewis XI. ſo much celebrated as a politician, and deſpiſed as a man, now ſucceeded to that crown, which he had traiterouſly attempted to ſeize, in prejudice to the beſt of kings and fathers. His leading object was the aggrandizement of the monarchy, by depreſſing the power of the nobles, and by uniting the great fiefs to the crown. Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, ſuſpecting Lewis's intentions, aſſembled all his forces; but Lewis, who hated coming to extremities, agreed to pay the duke thirty-ſix thouſand crowns towards his military expence, and appointed a perſonal interview at Peronne, in Picardy, then in poſſeſſion of Charles. The propoſal was agreed to, and the king went to the place of meeting, accompanied only by a few domeſtics. By ſuch an act of confidence, he hoped to throw Charles off his guard, and to take advantage, during their conference, of that friendly temper which he had inſpired. As a further means of forwarding his negociation, he commanded ſome of his emiſſaries to enter Liege, and perſuade the inhabitants to revolt againſt their duke.

Thus wrapt in perfidy and deceit, Lewis thought himſelf ſure of concluding an advantageous treaty. He was deceived, however, for once. Intelligence arrived, that the people of

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Liege had broke out into open rebellion, at the inſtigation of the french emiſſaries, and had cut the garriſon in pieces. Charles, tranſported with rage, ordered the king to be ſhut up in a caſtle, and made him ſenſible that he was a priſoner at his mercy. He enlarged him only upon condition, that he ſhould march with him againſt Liege, and be active in the reduction of that place, which had revolted at his own requeſt. Liege was reduced; and Lewis was not permitted to depart, before the duke ſet fire to the town, and maſſacred the inhabitants. The future part of Lewis's reign was one continued ſcene of executions, wars, and negociations. His brother, Charles, who had been always a thorn in his ſide, was taken off by poiſon. The conſtable de St. Paul, his brother-in-law, the count of Armagnac, the dukes of Alencon and Nemours, loſt their heads on the ſcaffold; and the children of the laſt named nobleman, by an unheard of piece of barbarity, were ſprinkled with their father's blood, yet reeking from his veins, and ſent to the Baſtile.

A. D. 1468.

The ignominious treaty of Lewis with Edward IV. by which he purchaſed the retreat of that monarch, has been already mentioned. He was always engaged either in war or negociation, with his natural enemy the duke of Burgundy, till the death of that prince, who juſtly fell in an ambitious and unprovoked attempt upon the liberty

A. D. 1477.

of

of the ſwiſs. The duke left no male iſſue, and but one daughter, the ſole heireſs of his extenſive dominions; which comprehended not only the dutchy of Burgundy, but Franche Compte, Artois, Flanders, and almoſt all Holland. Lewis propoſed a marriage between this princeſs, and his ſon, Charles, the dauphin, a boy only of ſeven years of age. In the mean time he ſeized Burgundy as a male fief, and made himſelf maſter of Artois, Beſancon, and ſeveral other places, as lying conveniently for him. This was the way to make ſure of ſomething; but ſurely not to bring about a marriage treaty. His capacity once more betrayed him. The princeſs Mary was filled with diffidence, and her flemiſh ſubjects with deteſtation. By their advice ſhe married Maximilian, of Auſtria, ſon of the emperor Frederick III. and hence aroſe new wars, and an implacable hatred between the houſes of France and Auſtria. CHAP. XXXIII.

Lewis retained Burgundy, and all the other places he had ſeized. Anjou, Maine, Provence, and Bar, were ſoon after left him by Charles, count du Maine, the laſt prince of the houſe of Anjou, who died without iſſue. Thus Lewis, amid all his crimes, and after all his ſtruggles, ſaw his kingdom much enlarged, his ſubjects in obedience, and his government revered at home and abroad. But he had only a glimpſe of the agreeable proſpect: for he was ſuddenly ſeized with a

CHAP. XXXIII

fit of the apoplexy, which threw him into a lingering condition; and he expected death with all thoſe horrors, which a life of ſuch complicated guilt deſerved. It at laſt overtook him, but not before he had ſuffered more tortures than any criminal condemned under his reign. Yet this prince, whoſe life was a jumble of crimes and contradictions, obtained the title of *Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty*.

A. D. 1483.

Lewis was ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles VIII. as yet in the fourteenth year of his age. He was no longer a minor by the law, but he was ſtill ſo by nature; and Lewis had wiſely entruſted the government, during the youth of the king, to his daughter Anne, lady Beaujeu, a woman of great capacity. The adminiſtration, however, was diſputed by the duke of Orleans, firſt prince of the blood, and afterwards the celebrated Lewis XII. who proving unſucceſsful in his intrigues, betook himſelf to arms, and entered into a league with the duke of Britanny, and the archduke Maximilian. The britons were defeated in the battle of St. Auben, and the duke of Orleans was taken priſoner.

A. D. 1483.

The death of the duke of Britanny, which happened ſoon after his defeat, threw the affairs of the duchy into the utmoſt confuſion, and ſeemed to threaten the ſtate with final ſubjection. It was the only great fief which now remained diſunited from the crown of France. As the

duke

duke had died without male heirs, ſome antiquated claims were revived by Charles to its dominions. The britons turned their eyes towards Maximilian of Auſtria, now king of the romans, whoſe wife, Mary of Burgundy, was lately dead, and offered him their dutcheſs in marriage. The propoſal was readily accepted, the nuptials were celebrated by proxy, and the ducheſs of Britanny aſſumed the auguſt title of queen of the romans. But this honour was all ſhe gained by her marriage. Maximilian, deſtitute of money and troops, was able to ſend no ſuccours to his conſort. The french made progreſs every day; yet ſtill the conqueſt of Britanny ſeemed ſo diſtant, and accompanied with ſo many difficulties, that the court of France changed its meaſures, and by a maſter ſtroke of policy aſtoniſhed all Europe. CHAP. XXXIII.

Charles VIII. had been affianced to Margaret, daughter of Maximilian; though too young for the nuptial union, ſhe had been ſent to Paris to be educated, and at this time bore the title of queen of France. Engagements ſo ſolemnly entered into could not eaſily be ſet aſide; but the marriage of Charles with the dutcheſs of Britanny ſeemed neceſſary to re-annex that important fief to the crown. The only method to attain this object, was the diſſolution of the two marriages, which had been celebrated, but not conſummated, and the eſpouſal of the dutcheſs

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of Britanny by the king of France. But the great difficulty, was how to obtain the conſent of the dutcheſs, who had fixed her affections on Maximilian. In order to ſubdue her obſtinacy, the duke of Orleans was ſet at liberty; and though formerly her ſuitor, and favoured with her ſmile, he zealouſly employed all his intereſt in favour of the king. By his advice, Charles advanced with a powerful army to Rennes, at that time the reſidence of the dutcheſs; who finding herſelf without reſource, opened the gates of the city, and agreed to the proffered marriage, which was ſoon after ſolemnized, and juſtly conſidered as the moſt fortunate event that could have befallen the french monarchy.

A. D. 1491.

Henry VII. king of England, vexed with himſelf for leaving his moſt uſeful ally ſo long expoſed to the invaſion of a ſuperior power, entered into a league with the king of the romans and the king of Spain. He obtained large ſupplies from his parliament; and he landed in France with one of the largeſt and appointed armies which had ever been tranſported from England.

Charles, and his miniſters, found means to divert the impending ſtorm, by diſſolving the confederacy. They reſtored Rouſſillion and Cerdagne to the king of Spain. Henry was bought off by the famous treaty of Eſtaples. Maximilian obtained reſtitution of Artois, Franche Compte,

Compte, and Charalois, which had been ceded as the dowry of his daughter, when ſhe was affianced to the king of France. CHAP. XXXIII.

Charles's motives for purchaſing peace at ſo high a price, were neither thoſe of indolence or timidity, but of ambition and youthful ardour. He determined to vindicate his title to the kingdom of Naples, ſuppoſed to be deſcended to him from the houſe of Anjou, which ended in Charles count of Maine, who had bequeathed all his rights and poſſeſſions to the crown of France. This project had long engaged the mind of Charles; but in order to carry it into execution, it was neceſſary to be at peace with his neighbours; and that being effected, he now ſet out for Italy, with as little concern, as if it had been a journey of pleaſure. A. D. 1494. But before we ſpeak of that expedition, ſeveral important matters merit our attention; the taking Conſtantinople by the turks, and the expulſion of the moors out of Spain,

CHAP. XXXIV.

The taking of Conſtantinople by the Turks, and Fall of the Greek Empire.

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OTHMAN, from whom the preſent ſultans are deſcended, and to whom the Ottoman empire owes its birth, fixed the ſeat of his government at Pruſa, in Bithynia, about the beginning of the fourteenth century. Amurath, the grandſon of Othman, at the head of the turkiſh army, croſſed the ſtreights of Callipolis, and took the city of Adrianople. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Bajazet, ſurnamed the Thunderbolt, on account of the rapidity of his conqueſts. The greeks, though ſurrounded by ſuch dangerous enemies, and though their empire was almoſt reduced to the boundaries of Conſtantinople, were not more united among themſelves than formerly. John Paleologus had condemned his ſon Andronicus, to loſe his eyes. * Andronicus revolted againſt his father, and ſhut him up in priſon.

In the mean time the progreſs of the turks in Europe, alarming the Chriſtian princes, they took arms; the main body, which conſiſted of about one hundred thouſand men of different nations, was commanded by Sigiſmund, king of Hungary, afterwards emperor. Bajazet drew them into an ambuſcade, and gained a complete victory over them. He laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, and its ruin ſeemed inevitable; when it was put off for

for a time, by one of thoſe great events, which fill the world with confuſion. CHAP. XXXIV.

Tamerlane, or Timor Beck, one of the princes of the mogul tartars, and a deſcendant of Genghiz-Kan by the female line, though born without dominions, ſubdued almoſt as great an extent of territory as his victorious anceſtor; and in the ſweep of his conqueſts gave a blow to the empire of the turks. He had ſubdued Perſia, India, and Syria; when the greek emperor, and five mahometan princes, whom the ſultan had ſtriped of their dominions, invited him into Aſia minor, as the only potentate able to deliver them from the tyranny of Bajazet.

Tamerlane was no doubt glad of an opportunity of extending his conqueſts and his renown: he therefore marched againſt Bajazet, who raiſed the ſiege of Conſtantinople, and prepared to face his rival. They met near Cæſaria, where all the forces in the world ſeemed to be aſſembled; and a great and terrible battle was fought. Bajazet himſelf was taken priſoner, and had the affliction to ſee one of his ſons fall by his ſide; and another, the companion of his chains. They were treated with great humanity by the victor, notwithſtanding the vulgar ſtory of the iron cage, in which the ſultan is ſaid to have been ſhut up. The turks were for many years happily diverted from Conſtantinople, by their wars in Hungary, where Amurath II. found an antagoniſt worthy of himſelf, A. D. 1402.

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himſelf, in the celebrated John Hunniades, vayvode of Tranſilvania, and general to Ladiſlaus VI. king of Poland, whom the hungarians had raiſed to their throne. This great commander obliged the ſultan to raiſe the ſiege of Belgrade, defeated him in a general engagement, and made him ſue for peace. Amurath and Ladiſlaus accordingly concluded a ſolemn truce for two years; to which the one ſwore upon the alcoran, and the other upon the goſpels; and the ſultan tired of the toils of empire, reſigned the ſceptre to his ſon Mahomet II. But an atrocious perfidity, diſgraceful to the chriſtian name, obliged him to reſume it, to the confuſion of his enemies.

The turks reſting on the faith of treaty, which they religiouſly obſerved, had carried their forces into Aſia. This ſeemed a favourable opportunity of attacking them on the ſide of Europe, and cardinal Julian Ceſarini, the pope's legate in Germany, a man of violent and deceitful character, perſuaded Ladiſlaus that the treaty with the turks was of no obligation, as it had been concluded without the conſent of his holineſs; and that it not only might, but ought to be violated. The pope confirmed this opinion; ordered the truce to be broke; and releaſed Ladiſlaus from his oath; according to the eſtabliſhed practice of the church of Rome, for ſeveral ages, and in conformity with the maxim, "that no faith is to be kept with here-"tics," and conſequently not with infidels: one

of

of the moſt pernicious doctrines ever deviſed by man; a doctrine which not only contradicts the firſt principle of reaſon and conſcience, but which, if carried into practice, muſt deſtroy all moral and political order. It would authorize enemies to ſport even with oaths; it would put an end to public faith; it would diſſolve the links of ſociety; and ſubſtitute robbery and bloodſhed, inſtead of the laws of nations and the ties of duty. CHAP. XXXIV.

The arguments of the pope and his legate however prevailed; and Ladiſlaus, ſeduced by falſe hopes, and influenced by falſe principles, invaded the ſultan's territories. The turks, enraged at ſuch a breach of faith, breathed nothing but vengeance. They requeſted Amurath to quit his retreat, and put himſelf at their head. He conſented; and marched in queſt of the chriſtian army, which he came up with, near the city of Varna, and defeated with great ſlaughter. Ladiſlaus fell with his ſword in his hand, all covered with wounds; cardinal Julian ſunk by his ſide. Amurath, thus victorious, reſigned once more the rod of empire. What a rare example of philoſophy in a turk! and was again obliged to reſume it. A. D. 1444.

The perſon who drew the ſultan a ſecond time from his retreat, was George Caſtrict, ſurnamed Scanderberg, the ſon of a prince of Albania. This young hero had been delivered as a hoſtage on the

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the ſubjection of his father's kingdom; had been educated in the court of Amurath, and had riſen into favour by his valour and talents. But he ſtill cheriſhed the idea of becoming one day the deliverer of his country; and a favourable opportunity at laſt offered. He had been ſent with the command of an army into Servia, when he heard of his father's death; and as he underſtood a ſecretary of the court was to paſs near his camp, he cauſed him to be ſeized, loaded with chains, and compelled him to ſign and put the ſultan's ſignet to an order, enjoining the governor of Croia, the capital of Albania, to deliver up the town and citadel to Scanderberg. This falſe order had the deſired effect; the place was delivered up, and Scanderberg maſſacred the turkiſh garriſon. The albanians crowded to his ſtandard, and he made ſo good an uſe of the mountainous ſituation of his country, as to defy all the efforts of the ottoman power.

Amurath died in 1451, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Mahomet II. ſurnamed the Great; the firſt enterprize of this prince was againſt Conſtantinople, which had ſo long been the object of the ambition of his anceſtors. The greek emperor John Paleologus II. was ſucceeded by his ſon Conſtantine: it was in this prince's reign, that Mahomet undertook the ſiege of Conſtantinople.

A. D. 1453. The garriſon defended the walls with great gallantry; and the turks were incapable of annoying

ing them from the ſea, by reaſon of large chains and beams which ſecured the mouth of the harbour. In order to overcome this difficulty, Mahomet cauſed a paſſage of near two leagues to be dug over land, in the form of a cradle, and lined with planks, beſmeared with greaſe; and with the help of engines, and a prodigious number of men, he drew up in the ſpace of one night, eighty gallies, and ſeventy veſſels of a ſmaller ſize, out of the water upon theſe planks, and launched them all in the harbour. The city was now aſſailed on all ſides; the walls were beat down faſter than the beſieged could repair them; the janizaries entered the breach, with Mahomet at their head; the emperor Conſtantine was ſlain among the crowd, and his capital became a prey to the conqueror. But for the honour of Mahomet, it muſt be obſerved, that few of the garriſon were put to the ſword. He arreſted the fury of his troops, and granted conditions to the inhabitants, who had ſent deputies to implore his clemency. Mahomet continued to puſh his conqueſts on all ſides, and with unvaried fortunes, till he received a check from John Hunniades, who obliged him to raiſe the ſiege of Belgrade. The knights of Rhodes, at preſent of Malta, oppoſed him in their iſland with the like ſucceſs; but he ſubdued Albania. After the death of Scandenberg, he carried his arms as far as Trieſte; took Otranto, and fixed the mahometan power

in

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in the heart of Calabria: he threatened Venice, and Rome itſelf, with ſubjection; hoping to make himſelf maſter of Italy, as well as Greece; and then the triumph of barbariſm would have been complete. All Europe trembled at his motions, and well it might; for Europe, unleſs united, muſt have ſunk beneath his ſword. But death freed chriſtendom from this terrible conqueror, in the fifty-firſt year of his age. His deſcendants, however, ſtill poſſeſs the fineſt country in our quarter of the globe. Greece, where civil liberty was firſt known, and arts and letters firſt brought to perfection, continues to be the ſeat of ignorance, barbariſm, and deſpotiſm.

A. D. 1461.

CHAP. XXXV.

Spain, from the Death of Peter the Cruel, till the Conqueſt of Granada, by Ferdinand and Iſabella.

PETER the Cruel, after being deſerted by the Black Prince, was ſubdued and ſlain by his baſtard brother, Henry, count of Traſtamara, who ſucceeded to the throne of Caſtile. Nothing remarkable happened during the reign of this prince, or under his deſcendant's, for almoſt a century. They were engaged in wars with their neighbours, the kings of Portugal and Arragon; ſo that Spain continued nearly in the ſame ſituation, till the reign of Henry IV. of Caſtile, whoſe debaucheries raiſed the reſentment of the nobles, and produced an inſurrection, which led to his depoſition. The manner in which it was executed was rather ſingular. All the malcontent nobility, with the archbiſhop of Toledo at their head, met at Avila; an image, repreſenting the king, was ſeated on the throne, clad in royal robes, with a crown on its head, a ſceptre in its hand, and the ſword of juſtice by its ſide. The accuſation againſt Henry was read, and the ſentence of depoſition pronounced, in preſence of a numerous aſſembly. At the cloſe of the firſt article of the charge, the crown was torn from the head of the image; at the cloſe of

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A. D. 1464.

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of the ſecond, the ſword of juſtice was ſnatched from its ſide; at the cloſe of the third, the ſceptre was wreſted from its hand; and of the laſt, it was tumbled headlong from the throne. At the ſame inſtant, Don Alphonſo, Henry's brother, a boy about twelve years of age, was proclaimed king of Caſtile and Leon, in his ſtead.

This extraordinary proceeding was followed by all the horrors of civil war, which did not ceaſe till after the death of the young prince, on whom the nobles had beſtowed the kingdom. The archbiſhop and his party, then continued to carry on the war, in the name of Iſabella, the king's ſiſter, to whom they gave the title of infanta; and Henry could not extricate himſelf out of theſe troubles, till he had ſigned one of the moſt humiliating treaties ever extorted from a ſovereign. He acknowledged his ſiſter Iſabella, the only lawful heireſs of his kingdom, in prejudice to the rights of his daughter Joan, whom the malcontents affirmed to be the offſpring of an adulterous commerce, between the queen and Don la Ceueva. At ſuch a price did this weak prince purchaſe from his ſubjects the empty title of king.

The grand object of this malcontent party now was the marriage of the princeſs Iſabella. They fixed upon Ferdinand, king of Arragon, for her huſband, and they were privately married by the archbiſhop of Toledo.

Henry

Henry affirmed in his laſt moments, that he believed, Joan to be his own daughter, and left a teſtamentary deed, tranſmitting the crown to this princeſs; but the ſuperior power of Ferdinand and Iſabella prevailed, and Joan retired to a convent. CHAP. XXXV. A. D. 1474.

Ferdinand and Iſabella were perſons of great prudence; their firſt object was the regulation of their government, which the civil wars had thrown into the greateſt diſorder. Theſe evils they remedied by their wiſe policy. The kingdom of Granada, now alone remained of all the mahometan poſſeſſions in Spain. Ferdinand and Iſabella, therefore, thinking to increaſe their hereditary dominions, by expelling the enemies of chriſtianity, entered Granada at the head of their troops, carried every thing before them, and at length undertook the ſiege of Granada, the capital of the kingdom. Abdalli, the mooriſh king, made a gallant defence; but all communication with the country being cut off, and all hopes of relief at an end, he capitulated, after a ſiege of eight months. Thus ended the empire of the arabs in Spain, after it had continued about eight hundred years. A. D. 1479. A. D. 1491.

The conqueſt of Granada was followed by the expulſion, or rather pillage and baniſhment of the jews, who had engroſſed all the wealth and commerce of Spain. About the ſame time their catholic majeſties concluded an alliance with the

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emperor Maximilian, and a treaty of marriage for their daughter Joan, with his eldeſt ſon Philip, archduke of Auſtria, and ſovereign of the Netherlands. About this time, alſo, the contract was concluded with Chriſtopher Columbus for the diſcovery of the new countries. But the conſequences of theſe things muſt be the ſubject of a future chapter. We muſt now return to the affairs of England under Henry VII.

CHAP. XXXVI.

England during the Reign of Henry VII.

HENRY VII. the firſt prince of the houſe of Tudor, aſcended the throne of England, in conſequence of the victory at Boſworth, and the death of Richard III. His title was confirmed by parliament, and his marriage with the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter of Edward IV. united the jarring claims of the houſes of York and Lancaſter; he had every reaſon, therefore, to promiſe himſelf peace and ſecurity. CHAP. XXXVI.

But Henry had unhappily imbibed a violent antipathy againſt the adherents of the houſe of York, which no time or experience were ever able to efface. Hence his amiable conſort was treated with contempt, his government grew unpopular, and his reign was filled with trouble and inſurrections.

The firſt inſurrection, headed by lord Lovel, and Sir Humphery Stafford, was ſoon diſperſed by the duke of Bedford. Lovel fled to Fanders, and Stafford was taken and executed. This rebellion was immediately followed by another of a more dangerous nature, as it laid deeper hold of the public diſcontents. Henry's jealouſy confined in the tower, Edward earl of Warwick,

CHAP. XXXVI.

ſon of the duke of Clarence; and while the nation was alarmed for the ſafety of this prince, a report was ſpread that he had made his eſcape. A general joy communicated itſelf from face to face, and ſo favourable an opportunity was not neglected by the enemies of Henry's government.

One Richard Simon, a prieſt of Oxford, and a zealous partizan of the houſe of York, attempted to gratify the popular wiſh, by holding up an impoſtor. For this purpoſe, he caſt his eyes upon Lambert Simnel, a bakers ſon, who, being endowed with underſtanding above his years, and addreſs above his condition, ſeemed well calculated to perſonate a prince of royal extraction. But as the impoſture would not bear a cloſe inſpection father Simon determined to make a trial of it firſt in Ireland. The plot unfolded to their wiſhes; Simnel was received with the utmoſt joy, and proclaimed king of Ireland.

A. D. 1486.

The king was a good deal alarmed, when he received intelligence of this revolt. The queen dowager, whom he ſuſpected of being concerned in the conſpiracy, was confined in a nunnary for life. Henry, next ordered Warwick to be taken from the tower, and expoſed to the view of the whole people. This expedient had its effect in England; but in Ireland the people ſtill perſiſted in their revolt.

King Simnel being now joined by lord Lovel, and ſome German troops he brought over with him,

him, reſolved to paſs over to England; and accordingly landed in Lancaſhire, expecting the country would riſe and join him; but in this he was deceived. The people, averſe to join a body of iriſh and german invaders, and kept in awe by the king's reputation in arms, remained in tranquility. The earl of Lincoln, who commanded the rebels, finding no hopes but in victory, determined to bring the matter to a ſpeedy deciſion. The two armies met at Stokes, where a bloody and obſtinate battle was fought. The rebels, at length, were obliged to give way; Lincoln periſhed in the field of battle; Simnel and his tutor Simon were taken priſoners. Simon was committed to cloſe cuſtody for life; Simnel was too contemptible, either to excite apprehenſion or reſentment in Henry; he was pardoned, and employed in the king's kitchen as a ſcullion. CHAP. XXXVI.

Henry, having thus reſtored tranquility to his kingdom, and ſecurity to his government, had leiſure to look abroad. France, for ſome years paſt, had a mighty increaſe of power and dominion, and had lately annexed Britanny, the laſt independent fief of the monarchy. Henry, who ſaw the importance of Britanny to France, was now aſhamed of having allowed his moſt uſeful ally to be cruſhed by a ſuperior power. All remedy for his miſcarriage was now become impracticable, but he talked loudly of vengeance;

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and ſet out for that purpoſe, at the head of a ſplendid army, after obtaining large ſupplies from his parliament. However, as avarice was in Henry a more powerful motive than either revenge or glory, he engaged, by the treaty of Eaſtaples, to leave the king of France in the peaceable poſſeſſion of Britanny, for a ſtipulated ſum of money, and an yearly penſion to him and his heirs. The old ducheſs of Burgundy, ſiſter of Edward IV. burning with reſentment, on account of the depreſſion of her family and her partizans, determined to play off another impoſtor upon Henry. With that view, ſhe cauſed a report to be propagated, that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, had made his eſcape from the tower, when his eldeſt brother was murdered, and was ſtill alive. Finding this rumour greedily received, her next care was to provide a young man proper to perſonate that unfortunate prince; and for that purpoſe, ſhe fixed upon Perkin Warbec, the ſon of a renegado jew of Tournay. The young jew enjoyed the fruits of his impoſture much longer than his predeceſſor, the baker: a majeſtic air, a finiſhed breeding, and great perſonal courage, ſeemed to make him worthy of the rank he aſſumed. James IV. king of Scotland, was ſo far deceived by his inſinuating addreſs and plauſible behaviour, as to give him in marriage the lady Catharine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntly, a young

A. D. 1492.

young lady eminent both for beauty and virtue. Perkin maintained his claim by arms for five years, and met with unexpected reſources, even in the midſt of his defeats. But being at length abandoned by his party, and delivered to the king; Henry had the clemency to condemn him only to perpetual impriſonment, from which in attempting to make his eſcape, he was ſeized, and paid for his raſhneſs with his life. CHAP. XXXVI. A. D. 1499.

Henry, having reſtored tranquility to his kingdom, projected a marriage between Arthur, prince of Wales, and the infanta Catherine, fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella: he, near ſixteen years of age, ſhe eighteen. But this marriage proved unproſperous. Prince Arthur died a few months after the celebration of the nuptials; and the king, deſirous to continue his alliance with Spain, and alſo unwilling to reſtore Catharine's dowry, obliged his ſecond ſon Henry, whom he created prince of Wales, to be contracted to the infanta, an event productive of the moſt important conſequences. A D. 1502.

Another marriage was alſo celebrated the ſame year, which, in the next age, gave birth to great events; the union of Margaret; Henry's eldeſt daughter, with James IV. of Scotland. When this alliance was deliberated on, in the engliſh council, ſome objected, that England might, in conſequence of this marriage, fall under the dominion of Scotland. "No;" replied Henry,

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" though Scotland ſhould give an heir to the " crown, that kingdom will only become an ac- " ceſſion to England ;" and the event has proved the juſtice of the obſervation.

Nothing material occurred in the remaining part of Henry's life. He died in the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign; which was, on the whole, fortunate for his people at home, and honourable abroad.

CHAP. XXXVII.

A general view of the Continent of Europe, from the Invaſion of Italy, by Charles VIII. till the League of Cambray.

CHARLES VIII. having married the heireſs of Britanny, as it has already been obſerved, and purchaſed peace from his neighbours, ſet out on his favourite project, the conqueſt of Naples, to which he had pretenſions, as heir of the houſe of Anjou. The army with which he undertook this great enterprize, did not exceed twenty thouſand men; yet with theſe he was able to over-run all Italy. The italians, who had entirely loſt the uſe of arms, and who, amid continual wars, had become every day more unwarlike, were aſtoniſhed to meet an enemy, that made the field of battle not a pompous tournament, but a ſcene of blood. They were terrified at the aſpect of real war, and ſhrunk on its approach. Pope Alexander VI. of infamous memory, the venetians, and Ludovico Sforza, ſurnamed the Moor, duke of Milan, who had invited Charles into Italy, alarmed at his progreſs, which was equally unwiſhed and unexpected, endeavoured to throw obſtacles in his way, almoſt as ſoon as he had croſſed the Alps. CHAP. XXXVII. A. D. 1494.

All

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All oppoſition, however, was in vain. Charles entered in triumph the city of Florence; he delivered Sienna and Piſa from the Tuſcan yoke; he marched next to Rome, where Alexander VI. had ineffectually intrigued againſt him, and he took poſſeſſion of that city as a conqueror. The pope had taken refuge in the caſtle of Saint Angelo; but he no ſooner ſaw the french cannon pointed againſt its feeble ramparts, than he offered to capitulate; and it coſt him only a cardinal's hat, to make his peace with the king. Charles, whoſe intereſt it was to have depoſed the pope, forgave him, and repented of it afterwards.

Never pontiff, ſure, more deſerved the indignation of a chriſtian prince. He, and the venetians, had applied to the turkiſh ſultan, Bajazet II. ſon and ſucceſſor of Mahomet II. to aſſiſt them in driving the french monarch out of Italy. It is alſo aſſerted, that the pope ſent a nuncio to the court of Conſtantinople, and that the alliance between his holineſs and the ſultan was purchaſed by one of thoſe inhuman murders, which are not commited without horror, even within the walls of the ſeraglio.

Alexander VI. by an extraordinary chain of events, had, at that time, in his poſſeſſion, the perſon of Zizim, brother of Bajazet. The manner in which this unfortunate prince fell into the hands of the pope, is as follows:

Zizim,

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Zizim, who was adored by the turks, had diſputed the empire with Bajazet, and was defeated. This unfortunate prince had recourſe, in his diſtreſs, to the knights of Rhodes, now of Malta. They received him as a prince, to whom they were bound to afford protection by the laws of hoſpitality; but ſoon afterwards they treated him as a priſoner; and Bajazet agreed to pay them a ſtipulated ſum of money annually, on condition that they ſhould not ſuffer Zizim to return to Turkey. The knights conveyed him to one of their commanders, at Poitou, in France. Pope Innocent VIII. Alexander's predeceſſor, wanted to get poſſeſſion of this valuable captive, as a pledge for the ſafety of Italy, againſt the attempts of the turks. Charles, therefore, ſent him to the pope, who received him with all the ſplendor and magnificence, which the ſovereign of Rome could ſhew to the brother of the ſovereign of Conſtantinople. It is ſaid, that Alexander VI. ſold Zizim's life, in a treaty which he made with Bajazet. Be that as it may, the king of France, full of his vaſt projects, and certain of the conqueſt of Naples, wanted to become formidable to the ſultan, by having the perſon of his unhappy brother in his power. The pope delivered him to Charles, but poiſoned, as is ſuppoſed. It is at leaſt certain, that he died ſoon after; and the character of Alexander makes it probable, that three hundred ducats, ſaid to have been offered

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fered by Bajazet, was eſteemed equivalent for ſuch a crime.

A. D. 1495.

Charles continued his progreſs towards Naples, where Alphonſo II. ſtruck with terror, at the approach of the french army, gave the world an example of a new kind of cowardice and puſillanimity. He fled privately to Sicily, and took refuge in a cloiſter; while Ferdinand, his ſon, now become king by this abdication, finding himſelf unable to retrieve the public affairs, releaſed his ſubjects from their oath of allegiance, and retired to the iſland of Iſcha.

While Charles was thus ſucceſsful in Naples, there was formed againſt him a powerful combination of almoſt all the italian ſtates: the pope, the venetians, the duke of Milan, ſupported by the emperor Maximilian, and by their catholic majeſties, Ferdinand and Iſabella. This powerful confederacy awakened Charles from his thoughtleſs ſecurity. He ſaw no proſpect of ſafety, but in returning to France.

A. D. 1496.

The confederates had aſſembled an army of thirty thouſand men, in order to obſtruct his march. Charles had only nine thouſand men with him. The two armies met in the valley of Fornova, and the french gained a complete victory. The exiled Ferdinand, by the help of Gonſalvo de Cordova, ſurnamed the Great Captain, recovered the whole kingdom of Naples.

Charles

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A. D. 1498.

Charles lived but two years after his return to France, and as he died without iſſue, was ſucceeded by the duke of Orleans, under the title of Lewis XII. to which was afterwards added the moſt glorious of all appellations, that of father of his people.

The claim of Lewis XII. to Naples, was the ſame of that of Charles VIII. and he demanded the duchy of Milan, in right of one of his grandmothers, daughter of John Viſconte, firſt duke of that territory; he therefore determined to aſſert his claim with ardour, and he ſucceeded. But before we relate the particulars of this conqueſt, it will be neceſſary to ſay a few words of pope Alexander VI. and his ſon, Cæſar Borgia, on account of their alliance with the king of France, and the ſhares which they had in the wars of Italy.

Alexander VI. was at that time engaged in two great deſigns; one was to reſtore to the patrimony of Saint Peter, the many territories of which it was ſaid to be deprived; and the other, was the exaltation of his ſon, Cæſar Borgia. Infamous as his conduct was, it did not impair his authority. He was publickly accuſed of a criminal correſpondence with his own ſiſter, whom he took away from three huſbands, ſucceſſively, and cauſed the laſt to be aſſaſſinated, that he might beſtow her in marriage, on the heir of the houſe of Eſte. The nuptials were celebrated in the

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the vatican, by the moſt ſhameful diverſions that debauch had ever invented for the confuſion of modeſty. Fifty courtezans danced naked before this inceſtuous family; and prizes were given to thoſe who exhibited the moſt laſcivious motions.

The duke of Gandia, and Ceſar Borgia, at that time cardinal and archbiſhop of Valentia, in Spain, are ſaid to have publickly diſputed the favours of their ſiſter, Lucretia. The duke of Gandia was aſſaſſinated at Rome, and Ceſar Borgia was the ſuppoſed author of the murder. The perſonal eſtates of the cardinals, at their deceaſe, belongs to the pope; and Alexander was ſtrongly ſuſpected of haſtening the death of more than one member of the ſacred college, that he might become poſſeſſed of their treaſures. But notwithſtanding theſe enormities, the people of Rome obeyed, without murmuring; and this pontiff's friendſhip was courted by all the potentates in Europe.

Lewis XII. had many reaſons for deſiring the friendſhip of Alexander. He wanted to be divorced from his wife, Joan, with whom he had lived upwards of twenty years, without having children; and to marry Anne, of Britanny, the queen dowager, who ſtill retained that tenderneſs, which ſhe had felt for him, when duke of Orleans. Lewis, therefore, applied to Alexander VI. who never ſcrupled at any indulgence, in

which

which he could find his intereſt. The bull of divorce was iſſued, and Cæſar Borgia carried it to France, after making advantageous terms for himſelf. Matters were quickly ſettled between Lewis and the queen dowager; and the king prepared for a freſh invaſion of Italy. CHAP. XXXVII. A. D. 1499.

Lewis paſſed the Alps, at the head of only twenty thouſand men; yet in the ſpace of twenty days, the french made themſelves maſters of the ſtate of Milan, and of Genoa. The king, clad in royal robes, entered the city of Milan, in triumph; and ſoon after the duke Ludovico Sforza, being betrayed by the ſwiſs in his pay, was ſent priſoner into France, and ſhut up in the caſtle of Loches, where he lay unpitied during the remainder of his days.

Lewis next turned his arms towards Naples; but as he foreſaw oppoſition from Ferdinand, the catholick king, who was connected by affinity with Frederick, king of Naples; he endeavoured by offers of intereſt, to which the ears of that monarch were never deaf, to engage him in an oppoſite confederacy. A plan was accordingly ſettled for the expulſion of Frederick, and the partition of his dominions. Frederick, unable to reſiſt the combined monarchs, reſigned his ſceptre. But he had the ſatisfaction to ſee Naples prove the ſource of contention among his conquerors. Lewis and Ferdinand, though they had

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had concurred in making the conqueſt, differed about the diviſion of it; from allies, they became enemies; and Gonſalvo de Cordova, or the Great Captain, by the exertion of his military talents; and by ſuch ſhameful and frequent violations of the moſt ſolemn engagements, as leave an indelible ſtain upon his memory, ſtripped the french of all that they had poſſeſſed in the neapolitan dominions, and ſecured the entire poſſeſſion of them to his no leſs perfidious maſter.

A. D. 1503.

Alexander VI. died about this time, and left behind him a more deteſtable memory in Europe, than Nero or Caligula had done in the roman empire. Cæſar Borgia, on his father's death, was ſtripped by pope Julius II. of all the fruits of his crimes, and abandoned by all the world. he fled for refuge to the king of Navarre, his father-in-law. This prince entered into a war, by the perſuaſion of Borgia, to diſpoſſeſs his vaſſals of their eſtates; as this inhuman tyrant had robbed the vaſſals of the holy ſee. He was ſlain fighting. "A glorious end," ſays Voltaire; but it is ſurely only glorious to fall in a good cauſe, and Borgias was confeſſedly a bad one.

A. D. 1505.

Lewis XII. made a new attempt to recover the kingdom of Naples; and was again diſappointed by the ambition of his miniſter, Cardinal d'Amboiſe, who ſold his maſter's intereſt for a promiſe of the papacy, which he never obtained.

During

During theſe tranſactions, Iſabella, queen of Caſtile, died, and Philip of Auſtria went to take poſſeſſion of that kingdom, as heir to his mother-in-law. He likewiſe died in a ſhort time, and left the king of France governor of his ſon, Charles. CHAP. XXXVII.

CHAP. XXXVIII.

Europe, from the League of Cambray to the Death of Lewis XII.

CHAP. XXXVIII

JULIUS II. had formed the project of driving all foreigners out of Italy. But in the first place he was desirous of humbling the venetians, whose power and riches had arrived at such a pitch, by their commerce to the east, as to become the object of terror to the italian states: the wealth of this republic was viewed with envy by the greatest monarchs, who could not vie with her private citizens in the magnificence of their buildings, in the richness of their dress and furniture, or in the splendor and elegance of living; and Julius II. whose ambition and abilities were equal to those of any pontiff who had ever sat on the papal throne, by working upon the fears of the italians, and upon the avarice of the princes beyond the Alps, induced them to form against this proud republic one of the most extensive confederacies that Europe had ever beheld.

A. D. 1508.

The emperor, the king of France, the king of Spain, and the pope, were principals in the league of Cambray, to which almost all the princes of Italy acceded, the least considerable of them hoping for some share in the spoils of a state which they already deemed to be devoted to destruction.

The

CHAP. XXXVIII.

The venetians, after the battle of Agnadello, in which they were entirely defeated, ſunk from the height of preſumption to the depths of deſpair. They abandoned all their territories on the continent, and ſhut themſelves up in their capital as their laſt refuge, and the only place which they hoped to preſerve. Julius having thus humbled the venetians, which was his firſt deſign, began to think of the ſecond, the expulſion of every foreign power out of Italy. For this purpoſe it was neceſſary to diſſolve the league of Cambray, and ſow diſſention among thoſe princes whom he had formerly united. He concluded an alliance with the venetians, againſt thoſe very french whom he had called in to oppoſe them. He ſolicited the favour of Henry VIII. king of England: he detached Ferdinand from the league, and drew him over to his party, by granting him the full inveſtitures of the kingdom of Naples; and what he chiefly valued, he formed a treaty with the ſwiſs, whoſe ſubſidy Lewis had refuſed to augment, and whom he had offended by ſome contumelious expreſſions. A. D. 1510.

The confederacy of Cambray being thus diſſolved, the face of affairs ſoon began to wear a very different appearance in Italy. The pope and his allies attacked the french on every ſide, and at length drove them entirely out of the Milaneſe, and Maximilian Sforza, the ſon of Ludovico, was again re-inſtated in poſſeſſion of that dutchy.

CHAP. XXXVIII.

While Lewis was loſing Milan, Ferdinand ſeized upon the dominions of the king of Navarre, the ally of France, which have ever ſince continued in the poſſeſſion of the ſpaniards.

The diſcomfiture of the french gave much pleaſure to the pope, who enjoyed this ſucceſs but a ſhort time. He was ſucceeded in the pon-

A. D. 1513.

tificate by John de Medicis, who took the name of Leo X. and proved one of the moſt illuſtrious princes that ever ſat on the papal throne. Humane, generous, affable, the patron of every art, and the friend of every virtue: he had a ſoul no leſs capable of forming great deſigns than his predeceſſor: by his negociation the emperor Maximilian was detached from the french intereſt, and Henry VIII. was perſuaded to invade France.

This young monarch, by his ſingle ſtrength, ſeemed in a condition to renew the times of Poitiers and Agincourt. He gained a complete victory at the battle of Guinegatte, which is called the battle of the ſpurs. He took Terouane, and Tournay. The ſwiſs at the ſame time had entered Burgundy with a formidable army; and Lewis de la Tremouille, governor of the province, could not get rid of theſe invaders, without paying them ſome money, and the promiſe of much more.

While Henry was employed on the continent, James IV. king of Scotland, invaded England at the head of a powerful army. The earl of Surrey having collected ſome troops, came up with him

at

at Flouden, where the king of Scotland was ſlain, and the flower of his nobility. CHAP. XXXVIII.

Soon after the battle of Flouden, a general pacification took place between all the contending powers. Lewis eſpouſed the princeſs Mary of England; which he did not ſurvive above three months. A. D. 1514.

CHAP. XXXIX.

A general View of Europe, continued from the Acceſſion of Francis I. to the Death of the Emperor Maximilian.

CHAP. XXXIX.

LEWIS XII. having no male iſſue, was ſucceeded on the throne of France by his ſon-in-law, Francis count of Angouleme, firſt prince of the blood. Young, brave, ambitious, and enterpriſing; he immediately turned his eyes towards Italy, as the ſcene of glory and conqueſt. His firſt object was the recovery of Milan. He therefore croſſed the Alps, and defeated the ſwiſs at Marignan, in one of the moſt furious and obſtinate battles recorded in the hiſtory of the modern times: the ſwiſs loſt twelve thouſand men, one half of their number; the loſs of the french was conſiderable. The ſurrender of Milan, and the conqueſt of the entire dutchy, were the conſequences of this victory. Maximilian Sforza, the reigning duke, reſigned his claim, in conſideration of a penſion. Francis having concluded a treaty with the pope, and with the ſwiſs, returned into France, leaving to Charles de Bourbon the government of his italian dominions.

A. D. 1515.

A. D. 1516. Ferdinand the catholic died about this time, and his grandſon Charles ſucceeded him. Charles, who had hitherto reſided in the low countries, which

which he inherited as heir of the houſe of Burgundy, was now near the full age of ſixteen, and poſſeſſed of a recollection and ſedateneſs much above his years; but his genius had yet given no indications of that ſuperiority which his maturer age diſplayed. CHAP. XXXIX.

Cardinal Ximines, a perſon of equal virtue and ſagacity, had been appointed by the laſt will of Ferdinand, ſole regent of Caſtile, till the arrival of his grandſon. The young king was received with univerſal acclamations of joy; but Ximenes found little cauſe to rejoice; he received a letter from Charles ſoon after his arrival, genteelly diſmiſſing him from his councils, under pretence of eaſing his age of that burden which he had ſo long and ſo ably ſuſtained. This letter proved fatal to the miniſter: his haughty mind could not ſurvive the diſgrace, and he expired in a few hours after reading it.

While Charles was taking poſſeſſion of the throne of Spain, in conſequence of the death of one grandfather, another was endeavouring to obtain for him the imperial crown. With this view Maximilian aſſembled a diet at Augſburg, where he cultivated the favour of the electors, in order to engage them to chuſe that young prince as his ſucceſſor. But the diet of Augſburg had other buſineſs. Thither was ſummoned Martin Luther, for "propagating new and dangerous opinions." Theſe opinions were no other than A. D. 1518.

CHAP. XXXIX.

the firſt principles of the reformation, which ſoon diffuſed themſelves through Germany, which were afterwards embraced by ſo many nations, and which ſeparated one half of Europe from the romiſh church. The ſpiritual deſpotiſm of Gregory VII. the temporal tyranny of Alexander VI. and the bloody ambition of Julius II. make too ſtrong an impreſſion on the mind to be ſoon effaced. After that enormous privilege which the roman pontiffs aſſumed of diſpoſing of crowns, and of releaſing nations from their oaths of allegiance, the moſt pernicious to ſociety was that of abſolving individuals from the ties of moral duty. This dangerous power the pope claimed as the ſucceſſor of St. Peter. He aſſumed and exerciſed the right of pardoning ſins; which was in other words granting permiſſion to commit them; for it is known at what price any crime may be bought off, the encouragement to vice is the ſame as if a diſpenſation had been granted beforehand, and even that was frequently practiſed.

Leo X. who was engaged in building that ſuperb temple the church of St. Peter, publiſhed a general ſale of indulgences, to ſupport the great expence of ſuch an undertaking. The abuſe of the ſale of theſe indulgences in Germany, where they were publicly retailed in ale houſes, awaked the indignation of Martin Luther, an auguſtan friar, and profeſſor of theology in the univerſity of

of Wittemberg. Luther was alſo incenſed, it is ſaid, that the privilege of vending this ſpiritual merchandize had been taken from his order, and given to the dominicans. But be that as it may, he wrote and preached againſt indulgences. From abuſes he proceeded to uſurpations, and from uſurpations to errors; and from one error to another, till the whole fabric of the romiſh church began to totter. CHAP. XXXIX.

Luther, who was protected by Frederick, elector of Saxony, repaired to Augſburg without heſitation. Cardinal Cajetan, the pope's legate, inſiſted that Luther ſhould retract his errors, and abſtain for the future from the publication of new and dangerous opinions. Martin boldly replied, that he could not with a ſafe conſcience, renounce opinions which he believed to be true; but offered to ſubmit the whole controverſy to the judgment of the learned, naming certain univerſities. This offer was rejected by Cajetan, who ſtill inſiſted on a ſimple recantation; and Luther, by the advice of his friends, ſecretly withdrew from Augſburg, and returned to his own country. A. D. 1519.

The diet of Augſburg was ſoon followed by the death of the emperor Maximilian; an event which left vacant the firſt ſtation among chriſtian princes, and gave riſe to a competition between two great monarchs, which threw all Europe into agitation. But before we enter on that intereſting

CHAP. XXXIX.

reſting æra, we muſt give ſome account of thoſe great naval diſcoveries, which produced ſo important a revolution in the commercial world, and gave to Europe a new continent, while religion and ambition were depopulating the old.

CHAP.

CHAP. XL.

The Diſcoveries of the Portugueſe and the Spaniards in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

CHAP. XL.

THE kings of Portugal, like thoſe of Spain, long ſpent their force in combating with the moors, and had no connection with the reſt of Europe. A detail of thoſe barbarous wars would be equally void of inſtruction and amuſement; ſuffice it to ſay, that prince Henry of Portugal, ſon to king John I. began thoſe naval diſcoveries, which afterwards tended to the aggrandizement of his country. He found ſome pilots bold enough to double cape Nore, hitherto ſuppoſed an inſurmountable barrier, and advanced as far as cape Bajadore, and in their return diſcovered the iſlands of Madeira. Other pilots, yet more bold, were ſent out, who doubled cape Bajadore, cape Blanco, cape Verd, and, at laſt, cape Sierra Lienna, within eight degrees of the line, before the death of prince Henry.

A. D. 1419.

Under the reign of John II. the portugueſe proſecuted their diſcoveries with equal ardour and ſucceſs; and at length, in 1486, doubled the extreme point of Africa, which they ſtiled the Cape of Good Hope.

A D. 1463.

Emanuel I. purſued the great projects of his predeceſſors. He ſent out a fleet of four ſhips, under

CHAP. XL.

under the command of Vaſco de Gama, a noble portugueſe, in order to complete the paſſage to India by ſea. This admiral, who poſſeſſed all the knowledge neceſſary for ſuch an expedition, after being aſſailed by tempeſts, and ranging through unknown ſeas, happily arrived at the city of Calicut, on the coaſt of Malabar.

A. D. 1498.

Nothing can expreſs the joy of the portugueſe on the return of Gama to Liſbon. They ſaw themſelves in poſſeſſion of the richeſt commerce in the world; they alſo flattered themſelves with the proſpect of extending their religion along with their dominions.

The pope further encouraged this hope, and granted the portugueſe all the countries which they ſhould diſcover in the caſt, on condition that they ſhould there plant the catholic faith.

While the portugueſe were thus employed in making acquiſitions in the eaſt, the Spaniards had diſcovered a new continent towards the weſt. They had called into exiſtence, as it were, another world, opened new ſources of trade, expanded new theatres of dominion, and diſplayed new ſcenes of ambition, of avarice, and of blood.

Chriſtopher Columbus, a genoeſe navigator, who reſided at Liſbon, firſt conceived the idea of this new continent. The genoeſe, his countrymen, whom he propoſed to put in poſſeſſion of another hemiſphere, treated him as a viſionary.

He

He unfolded his project, the grandeſt that human genius ever formed, to the courts of England and Portugal, without ſucceſs. At laſt he laid it before the court of Spain; where he long ſuffered all that neglect and contempt which unſupported merit ſo often meets from men in office, who are too apt to deſpiſe what they do not underſtand. CHAP. XL.

At length Iſabella ſeemed to ſympathize with the bold ſpirit of Columbus. Three ſmall veſſels were fitted out by her orders; and Columbus ſet out on the 3d of Auguſt 1492, in queſt of the weſtern world.

The portugueſe navigators, in their firſt diſcoveries, had always ſome reference to the coaſt. cape had pointed to them cape; but Columbus, with no land mark but the heavens, nor any guide but the compaſs, boldly launched into the ocean, without knowing what ſhore ſhould receive him, or where he could find reſt for the ſole of his foot. His crew murmured, they mutined: they propoſed to commit him to thoſe waves with which he ſo wantonly ſported, and return to Spain. At laſt, to the inexpreſſible joy of Columbus, he got ſight of the Lucayo iſlands, which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of their catholic majeſties, and proceeded on his courſe. He next ſteered to the iſland of Cuba, and Hiſpaniola; on this latter he built a fort and planted a little colony; after which he returned to Spain, where

CHAP. XL. where he was received with univerſal acclamations of joy.

A. D. 1493. Columbus ſoon ſet ſail again, with a fleet of ſeventeen ſhips. He now made the diſcovery of the continent of America, near the mouth of the river Oroonoko; but he was unjuſtly deprived of the honour of this diſcovery. The merchants of Seville, having obtained permiſſion to attempt diſcoveries, ſent four ſhips under the command of Alonzo de Ojeda, aſſiſted by Americus Veſpucius, a florentine navigator. This fleet touched on that continent already diſcovered by Columbus; and Americus who was a man of much addreſs, by publiſhing the firſt voyages on the ſubject, and other artful means, gave his name to the new world, in preference to the illuſtrious genoeſe.

This, however, was but a ſmall misfortune in compariſon of what Columbus was doomed to ſuffer. His enemies having prevailed at court, a new governor was ſent to Hiſpaniola. He was put in irons and ſent home in that condition.

A. D. 1502. The ſpaniſh miniſtry were aſhamed of the ſeverity of their creature: Columbus was ſet at liberty, and a fourth command granted him for the proſecution of new diſcoveries. He touched at ſeveral parts of the American continent, and at length returned home, where he was received coldly. He retired to Valadolid, where he was

ſuffered

ſuffered to fall a martyr to the ingratitude of that monarch, to whom he had given the Weſt Indies, and for whom he had opened a paſſage into a richer and more extenſive empire than was ever ſubdued by the roman arms.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLI.

A general view of the Affairs of Europe, from the Election of Charles V. to the Peace of Cambray.

CHAP. XLI.

THOUGH Maximilian could not prevail upon the German electors to chuſe his grandſon of Spain king of the romans, he had diſpoſed their minds in favour of that prince; and other circumſtances, on the death of the emperor, conſpired to the exaltation of Charles. The imperial crown had ſo long continued in the auſtrian line, that it began to be conſidered as hereditary in that family; and Germany, torn by religious diſputes, ſtood in need of a powerful emperor, not only to preſerve its own internal tranquility, but alſo to protect it againſt the victorious arms of the turks, who, under Selim I. threatened the liberties of Europe.

Francis I. however, no ſooner received intelligence of the death of Maximilian, than he declared himſelf a candidate for the empire; and with no leſs confidence than Charles. He truſted to his ſuperior years and experience; his great reputation in arms, acquired by the victory at Marignan, and the conqueſt of Milan.

Charles

Charles at length, was elected to the empire; which circumſtance gave riſe to a jealouſy and emulation between thoſe two great monarchs, involved them in almoſt perpetual hoſtilities, and kept their whole age in movement. CHAP. XLI. A. D. 1520.

Henry VIII. of England, was the third prince of the age in power and dignity; his friendſhip was therefore eagerly courted by each of the rivals. This prince was at that time governed by cardinal Wolſey, his prime miniſter, a man, who, by his talents and accompliſhments, had riſen from one of the loweſt conditions in life, to the higheſt employments both in church and ſtate.

Francis ſolicited an interview with the king of England near Calais, in hopes of being able to attach him and his miniſter to his friendſhip and intereſt.

Charles, dreading the effects of this meeting, reſolved, if poſſible to defeate its purpoſe. He therefore landed at Dover, in his way from Spain to the Low Countries. The king of England, charmed with ſuch an inſtance of confidence, haſtened to receive his royal gueſt; and Charles, during his ſhort ſtay, had the addreſs, not only to give Henry favourable impreſſions of his character and intentions, but to detach Wolſey entirely from the intereſt of Francis. The tiara had attracted the eye of that ambitious prelate,

CHAP. XLI.

and the emperor had made him an offer of his intereſt on the firſt vacancy.

The day of Charles's departure, Henry went over to Calais with his whole court, in order to meet Francis. Their interview was in an open plain, between Guiſnes and Ardres; where the two kings and their attendants diſplayed their magnificence with ſuch emulation and profuſe expence, as procured it the name of the *field of the cloth of gold.*

Charles having ſecured the friendſhip of the king of England and his miniſter, repaired to Aix-la-Chapelle, where he was ſolemnly inveſted with the crown and ſceptre of Charlemagne. About the ſame time, Solyman the Magnificent, one of the moſt accompliſhed, enterpriſing, and victorious of the turkiſh princes, and a conſtant and formidable rival to the emperor, aſcended the ottoman throne.

Francis at length began this never ending quarrel, by ſeizing upon Navarre; his troops were hardly in poſſeſſion of it, when they were expelled by the ſpaniards. Hoſtilities thus commenced in one quarter between the rival monarchs, ſoon ſpread to another. Charles entered France; but was repelled by the famous chevalier Bayard. Francis broke into the Low Countries, where he loſt an opportunity of cutting off the whole imperial army.

During

During theſe operations of the field, a league was concluded by the intrigues of Wolſey, between the pope, Henry, and Charles, againſt France. The papal army, commanded by Colonna, drove the french entirely out of Italy. Leo X. received the account of this rapid ſucceſs with ſuch tranſports of joy, as, are ſaid, to have brought on a fever, which occaſioned his death. CHAP. XLI. A. D. 1521.

Cardinal Adrian, Charles's preceptor, was unanimouſly raiſed to the papacy; and Wolſey's name, notwithſtanding the emperor's promiſe, was ſcarcely mentioned in the conclave.

While the chriſtian princes were waſting each other's ſtrength, Solyman the Magnificent, entered Hungary, and made himſelf maſter of Belgrade. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, he turned his victories againſt the iſland of Rhodes, at that time the ſeat of the knights of St. John, of Jeruſalem. Liſle Adam, the grand maſter, made a gallant defence; but after incredible efforts of courage, patience, and military conduct, during a ſiege of ſix months, he was obliged to ſurrender the place, having obtained an honourable capitulation from the ſultan, who admired and reſpected his heroic qualities. Charles granted the ſmall iſland of Malta to the knights, where they fixed their reſidence, and continued long to retain their ancient ſpirit.

Meanwhile, the confederacy againſt France became more formidable than ever. The vene-

CHAP. XLI.

tians, formed engagements with the emperor for ſecuring Francis Sforza in the poſſeſſion of the duchy of Milan; the pope, the florentines, and all the italian powers acceded to the ſame alliance. Francis was left without a ſingle ally, to reſiſt the efforts of a multitude of enemies, whoſe armies every way threatened him. The emperor, in perſon, menaced France with an invaſion on the ſide of Guienne. The forces of England, and the Netherlands, hovered over Picardy, and a numerous body of germans was preparing to ravage Burgundy.

Francis, no way intimidated by ſo many powerful adverſaries, aſſembled a great army, with which he hoped to diſconcert all the emperor's ſchemes, by marching it in perſon into Italy. But the diſcovery of a domeſtic conſpiracy, which threatened the deſtruction of his kingdom, obliged him to ſuſpend his expedition.

Charles, duke of Bourbon, lord high conſtable of France, was a prince of the moſt ſhining merit. His great talents equally fitted him for the council or the field; while his eminent ſervices to the crown entitled him to its firſt favour. Unhappily, theſe ſuperior qualifications created a jealouſy at court, where the conſtable received repeated affronts. Bourbon, about this time, became a widower; and Louiſa, ducheſs of Angouleme, the king's mother, formed the ſcheme of marrying him. Her propoſal was rejected; and

and Louiſa, filled with all the rage of a diſappointed woman, reſolved to ruin the man ſhe could not marry. For this purpoſe ſhe commenced an iniquitous ſuit againſt him; and by the chicanery of chancellor Du Prat, the conſtable was ſtript of his whole family eſtate. Driven to deſpair by ſo many injuries, he entered into a ſecret correſpondence with the emperor and the king of England; and he propoſed, as ſoon as Francis had croſſed the Alps, to raiſe an inſurrection among his vaſſals, and introduce foreign enemies into France. CHAP. XLI.

Happily, Francis got information of this conſpiracy before he left the kingdom. Bourbon entered into the emperor's ſervice, and employed all the force of his enterpriſing genius, to the prejudice of his prince and his native country.

In conſequence of the diſcovery of this plot, Francis relinquiſhed his intention of leading his army in perſon into Italy. He gave the command of it to admiral Bonnivet, a man deſtitute of the talents, which could render him a match for the imperial generals, Bourbon and Peſcara; he was therefore quickly compelled to fly, and was defeated in his retreat, at Biagraſſa. The famous chevalier Bayard, who, though he never commanded in chief, yet was truly deſerving the ſurname of "the Knight without fear or reproach," was mortally wounded in this engagement. Charles, of Bourbon, ſeeing him in this A. D. 1524.

CHAP. XLI.

condition, expreſſed much ſorrow for his fate. "Pity not me," cried the high minded chevalier; "but pity thoſe, who fight againſt their "king, their country, and their oath."

The emperor and his allies were leſs ſucceſsful in their attempts upon France; they were baffled in every quarter; and Francis, though ſtript of his italian dominions, might ſtill have enjoyed in ſafety, the glory of having defended his native kingdom againſt one half of Europe, and bid defiance to all his enemies: but his ancient ardour ſeized him, for the conqueſt of Milan, and he determined to march into Italy.

A. D. 1525.

The unfortunate battle of Pavia, in which the king, after performing many acts of valour, was made priſoner, ſeemed to foretel his inevitable ruin. He wrote to his mother, Louiſa, whom he had left regent of the kingdom, the following ſhort, but expreſſive letter. "All, madam, is "loſt, our honour excepted." Louiſa, inſtead of giving herſelf up to ſuch lamentations as were natural to woman, took every poſſible meaſure for putting the kingdom in a poſture of defence; ſhe employed all her addreſs to gain the friendſhip of the king of England, and a ray of comfort from that quarter ſoon broke in upon the french affairs.

Henry VIII. inſtead of joining with Charles to diſmember France, became jealous of his riſing greatneſs, and entered into a treaty with the queen

regent

regent. In a word, the captivity of Francis I. CHAP. XLI.
which to all appearance ſhould have occaſioned ſuch great revolutions, produced only a ranſom, mutual reproach, the lie given, and idle challenges, which threw a kind of ridicule on theſe terrible events, and ſeemed to degrade the two chief perſonages in chriſtendom.

The principal article, in the treaty of Madrid, by which Francis obtained his liberty, was, that Burgundy ſhould be reſtored to Charles, as the rightful inheritance of his anceſtors, and that Francis's two eldeſt ſons ſhould be delivered up as hoſtages, for the performance of the conditions ſtipulated.

Mean while the duke of Bourbon, who commanded the imperialiſts, had made himſelf maſter of the milaneſe, of which the emperor had promiſed him the inveſtiture; and his troops beginning to mutiny, for want of pay, he led them to Rome, and promiſed to enrich them with the ſpoils of that city. He was as good as his word; A. D. for though he himſelf was ſlain in planting a 1527. ſcaling ladder againſt the wall, his ſoldiers, rather enraged, than diſcouraged by his death, mounted to the aſſault with the utmoſt ardor, animated by the greatneſs of the prize; and entering the city, ſword in hand, plundered it for ſeveral days. Clement VII. who had ſucceeded Adrian, neglecting to make his eſcape, was taken priſoner, and found that the ſacredneſs of his

CHAP. XLI.

character could not procure him liberty or reſpect.

Henry and Francis, alarmed at the progreſs of the imperialiſts, entered into a cloſer alliance, and agreed to invade Italy with a powerful army, and to take the moſt vigorous meaſures for reſtoring the pope to his liberty. Clement obtained his freedom; and the treaty of Cambray, which was brought about ſoon after ſeemed to reſtore tranquility to Europe. By this treaty Francis agreed to pay two millions of crowns, as the ranſom of his two ſons, to reſign the ſovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and forego all his italian claims; and Charles ceaſed to demand the reſtitution of Burgundy.

A. D. 1529.

CHAP. XLII.

A general view of Europe, continued to the Peace of Creſpy.

CHARLES, ſenſible that the religious diviſions in Germany would in the end prove hurtful to the imperial authority, appointed a diet of the empire to be held at Spires, in order to take into conſideration the ſtate of religion. The diet, after much diſpute, iſſued a decree, prohibiting any further innovations in religion, before the meeting of a general council. Againſt this decree, the elector of Saxony, the landgrave of Heſſe, the duke of Lunenburg, the prince of Anhalt, together with the deputies of fourteen imperial cities, entered into a ſolemn proteſt. On that account they were called proteſtants; an appellation which has ſince become common to all the ſects, of whatever denomination, that have revolted from the roman ſee. CHAP. XLII.

In conſequence of this decree, which was conſidered as a prelude to the moſt violent perſecution, the proteſtant princes aſſembled at Smalkalde, and concluded a league of mutual defence. However, Charles did not think this a proper ſeaſon to attempt any thing againſt them. Solyman threatened Hungary with the whole A. D. 1531.

force

CHAP. LXII.

force of the turkiſh empire. Charles felt the neceſſity of union; he therefore granted the proteſtants liberty of conſcience, until the meeting of a general council; and they agreed on their part, to aſſiſt him powerfully againſt the turks.

This treaty was no ſooner concluded, than Charles, at the head of an hundred thouſand men, marched againſt Solyman, who retired before him. This was the beginning of his active life, and perſonal glory. We now find him at once fighting againſt the turks, preventing the french from paſſing the Alps, appointing a council, and returning into Spain, in order to carry the war into Africa, landing before Tunis, gaining a victory over the uſurper of that kingdom, appointing a king of Tunis, tributary to Spain, and delivering eighteen thouſand chriſtians from captivity, whom he brings home in triumph to Europe, and who, ſuccoured by his bounty, return each to his native country, and exalt the name of Charles V. to the ſkies. All the princes of chriſtendom now ſeemed little in compariſon with him, and all other glory ſeemed loſt in the ſuperior luſtre of his fame.

Francis I. on ſeeing his rival thus diſpoſing of kingdoms, endeavoured once more to get poſſeſſeſſion of Milan; and for this purpoſe, called in the aſſiſtance of Solyman and his turks, whom Charles had driven out of chriſtendom. This conduct might be agreeable to good politics; but

but it ſtood in need of great ſucceſs to render it glorious. CHAP XLII.

In the fatal expedition of Milan, it was neceſſary to paſs through Piedmont; but the duke of Savoy, who was in the emperor's intereſt, refuſed Francis a paſſage; upon which he ravaged that prince's territories; and the geneveſe taking advantage of this invaſion, threw off the yoke, and have ever ſince remained entirely free.

Charles, at the head of fifty thouſand men, marches from Rome, and obliges the french to repaſs the Alps: he then enters Provence, and lays ſiege to Marſeilles. The french monarch fixed on the moſt effectual plan for defeating this invaſion. He determined to remain entirely upon the defenſive, and to deprive the enemy of ſubſiſtence, by laying waſte the country about them. A. D. The execution of this plan was committed to the 1536. marechal Montmorenci, its author, a man happily fitted for ſuch a truſt, by the inflexible ſeverity of his diſpoſition. After unſucceſsfully inveſting Marſeilles and Arles, after attempting, in vain, to draw Montmorenci from his camp, and not daring to attack it, Charles, having loſt one half of his troops, by diſeaſe or by famine, was under the neceſſity of conducting the remains of his army baek into Italy.

A truce between theſe rival princes was at length happily concluded, at the interceſſion of pope

CHAP. XLII.

pope Paul III. and at an interview, which took place a few days after, theſe two hoſtile monarchs and vindictive enemies, who had accuſed each other of every kind of baſeneſs, converſed together with all the cordiality of brothers, and ſeemed to vie with each other in expreſſions of reſpect and friendſhip. This was the conſequence of the ſpirit of the times.

The emperor, on his return to Spain, heard that the city of Ghent, in Flanders, had revolted. Charles, impatient to reduce and puniſh the rebellious city, demanded of Francis a paſſage through his dominions; who ſent the dauphin and the duke of Orleans to conduct him as far as Bayonne, and went in perſon to meet him as far as Chattelleraut.

The deſign of Francis, in receiving him in his dominions with ſo much parade and civility, was to obtain from him a promiſe of the inveſtiture of the dutchy of Milan; and it was in this idle view that he refuſed the homage offered him by the inhabitants of Ghent, but he neither got Ghent nor Milan.

The citizens of Ghent, alarmed at the approach of the emperor, ſent ambaſſadors to implore his mercy. Charles only condeſcended to reply, that he would appear before them "as a ſovereign, "and a judge." He accordingly entered the place of his nativity; and inſtead of that lenity which

which might have been expected, exhibited an awful example of his ſeverity. Twenty-ſix of the principal citizens were put to death: a greater number baniſhed; and the city was declared to have forfeited all its privileges. CHAP. XLII. A. D. 1540.

Having thus re-eſtabliſhed his authority in the low countries, Charles began gradually to throw aſide the veil under which he had concealed his intentions with reſpect to the milaneſe; and at laſt peremptorily refuſed to give up a territory of ſuch value. Francis diſcovered ſuch reſentment at this deception, as made it obvious that he would ſeize on the firſt opportunity of revenge, and that a new war would ſoon deſolate the European continent.

Charles now, to put the finiſhing hand to his glory, reſolved to conquer the kingdom of Algiers, as he had done Tunis; but this expedition proved unfortunate. No ſooner had the emperor landed in Barbary, than a frightful hurricane aroſe, ſcattered his fleet, and daſhed great part of it to pieces; while he and his land forces were expoſed to all the fury of the elements, and the attacks of the enemy. At laſt Andrew Doria, the famous genoeſe admiral, happily being able to aſſemble the remains of the fleet, Charles was glad to reimbark, after having loſt the beſt part of his army.

The

CHAP. XLII.

The loſs which the emperor ſuſtained in this calamitous expedition, encouraged the king of France to begin hoſtilities. He renewed more ſtrictly his alliance with Solyman, and ſent two miniſters privately to the pope through Venice. Theſe miniſters were aſſaſſinated in their way, by order of the marquis del Vaſto, governor of Milan, under pretence that they were the emperor's ſubjects. The war was now renewed with more animoſity than ever, but without being diſtinguiſhed by any remarkable event, except the battle of Ceriſoiles, in which ten thouſand of the emperor's beſt troops fell. It will be ſufficient for us to know, that after France, Spain, Piedmont, and the low countries, had been alternately, or at once the ſcene of war; after the turkiſh fleet under Barbaroſſa had ravaged the coaſts of Italy, and the lilies of France, and the creſſent of Mahomet had appeared in conjunction before Nice; Francis and Charles, mutually tired of harraſſing each other, concluded a treaty of peace at Creſpy. By this treaty, Charles promiſed the duchy of Milan to the duke of Orleans, the king's ſon, who was to be his ſon-in-law, but the death of this prince ſaved the emperor the confuſion of once more breaking his word.

A. D. 1544.

The emperor was chiefly induced to this peace with France, by a determination of humbling the proteſtant princes of Germany, whom he foreſaw would

would endeavour to throw off the imperial authority. But before we take a view of the wars, in which that reſolution involved him, it will be neceſſary to take a glance at the domeſtic hiſtory of England; the knowledge of which will throw light on many foreign tranſactions. CHAP. XLII.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLIII.

The domeſtic Hiſtory of England, during the Reign of Henry VIII. with ſome Account of the Affairs of Scotland.

CHAP. XLIII.

THE moſt memorable event in the domeſtic hiſtory of Henry's reign is the divorce of queen Catharine. The king's ſcruples in regard to the lawfulneſs of his marriage with his brother's widow, increaſed with the decay of the queen's beauty. Cardinal Wolſey fortified his maſter's ſcruples; and the bright eyes of Anna Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, carried home every argument to the heart of Henry; violently ſtruck him with the horror of inceſt, and at once determined him to break off all conjugal commerce with Catharine. He therefore applied to Clement VII. to annul his marriage with Catharine of Spain, contrary to all laws divine and human.

Clement, who had lately ſeen the city of Rome ſacked by the army of Charles V. and having but lately made peace with this prince, was ſtill apprehenſive of his reſentment. He therefore could by no means think of declaring his aunt a concubine, and her children baſtards; who had ſo long been acknowledged legitimate.

Francis I. ſtrongly ſupported Henry's cauſe at Rome, as the enemy of Charles V. whoſe power

was

was grown formidable. The pope thus preſſed between the emperor and the two kings, and being, as he expreſſed himſelf in one of his letters, "between the hammer and the anvil," had recourſe to negociations, delays, and promiſes, in hopes that Henry's paſſion could not laſt ſo long as an italian negociation; but here he was deceived, the king's paſſion grew more violent from oppoſition. And Henry, inſtead of making any more applications to the court of Rome, appealed to the univerſities of Europe, with regard to that controverted point. CHAP. XLIII.

At length the univerſities of France, and particularly the Sorbonne, came to a reſolution that the marriage of Henry VIII. with Catharine of Spain, was unlawful, and ſhould be annulled. Accordingly Cranmer archbiſhop of Canterbury, annulled Henry's marriage with Catharine; and Anna Boleyn, whom the king had privately eſpouſed, was publicly crowned queen, with all the pomp and dignity ſuited to that ceremony; and to complete Henry's ſatisfaction on the concluſion of this troubleſome buſineſs, the queen was ſafely delivered of a daughter, who received the name of Elizabeth, and whom we ſhall afterwards ſee ſwaying the engliſh ſceptre with equal glory to herſelf, and happineſs to her people.

Pope Clement VII. could not now avoid revenging the affront offered to Charles V. and the prerogatives of the Holy See; and accordingly

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iſſued a bull againſt Henry VIII. This bull loſt him the kingdom of England; for Henry got himſelf declared ſupreme head of the church of England by his clergy, and the parliament afterwards confirmed his title, and aboliſhed the pope's authority throughout the kingdom.

This very prince who had written ſo warmly in defence of the pope's authority againſt Luther, for which he had received the title of defender of the faith, became now an irreconcileable enemy to the ſee of Rome. But at the ſame time, thoſe who maintained the doctrines of Luther, or denied the king's ſupremacy, were equally the objects of his vengeance. Among the latter were Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter, and the famous lord chancellor More: theſe refuſed to acknowledge the king's ſupremacy, and died upon the ſcaffold with heroic conſtancy.

Anna Boleyn now began to experience the decay of the king's affections, and the capriciouſneſs of his temper. His love was transferred to a new miſtreſs; the charms of Jane Seymour, maid of honour to the queen, a young lady of exquiſite beauty, had entirely captivated him. The queen's enemies at court, immediately ſenſible of the alienation of the king's affections, accompliſhed her ruin by flattering his new paſſion. They indirectly accuſed her of criminal correſpondence with ſeveral gentlemen of the bedchamber, and even with her own brother. Henry believed all, becauſe

becauſe he wiſhed to be convinced. The queen was committed to the tower; brought to her trial; condemned without evidence, and executed without remorſe. Hiſtory affords us no reaſon to call her innocence in queſtion; and the king, by marrying her known rival the day after her execution, made the motives of his conduct ſufficiently evident, and left the world in little doubt about the iniquity of her ſentence.

Henry now determined to ſuppreſs all the monaſteries in the kingdom, as ſo many nurſeries of rebellion, as well as idleneſs, ſuperſtition and folly, and to put himſelf in poſſeſſion of their ample revenues. In order to effectuate this robbery with ſome colour of juſtice, he appointed commiſſioners to viſit all religious houſes: and theſe men, acquainted with the king's deſign, brought reports, whether true or falſe, of ſuch frightful diſorders, lewdneſs, ignorance, prieſtcraft, and unnatural luſts, as filled the nation with horror; againſt inſtitutions held ſacred by their anceſtors, and lately objects of the moſt profound veneration. There were to the number of three hundred and ſeventy-ſix monaſteries at once ſuppreſſed by parliament; and their revenues, goods, chattels, and plate, were granted to the king.

The ſuppreſſion of theſe receptacles of idleneſs, was followed by an event which completed Henry's domeſtic felicity; the birth of a ſon,

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who was baptized under the name of Edward. but his happineſs was not without allay; the queen died two days after. A ſon, however, had been ſo long, and ſo ardently deſired by Henry, and was now become ſo neceſſary, in order to prevent diſputes with regard to the ſucceſſion, the two princeſſes being declared illigitimate, that the king's affliction was drowned in his joy.

Henry, however, ſoon contracted a new marriage with Anne of Cleves, of whom he became enamoured by a flattering picture, which the famous Hans Holbein had drawn of her. But when he ſaw her in perſon, he found her ſo different from her picture, that in ſix months after he reſolved upon a third divorce. The bounds of juſtice and ſhame had long been broken through, and the clergy and parliament made no ſcruple of granting a ſentence of divorce. After which, he married his fifth wife, Catharine Howard, who was one of his own ſubjects. Any perſon but Henry would have been wary of continually expoſing the real or pretended infamy of his family; but he, on the contrary, being informed that the queen, before her marriage, had had ſeveral gallants, ordered her to be beheaded for paſt faults, which ought not to have been remembered, and which, at the time of their commiſſion, did not merit ſo ſevere a puniſhment.

A D. 1542.

After

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After being thus ſtained with the blood of two wives, and branded with the infamy of three divorcements, he cauſed a law to be paſſed equally ſingular and ridiculous; which was, that any perſon being privy to the gallantry of the queen, and not making the ſame known, ſhould incur the penalties of high treaſon; and that every woman about to be married to a king of England, not being a virgin, is bound to declare the ſame under pain of like puniſhment.

It was ſaid, by way of jeſt, of this act, that the king ſhould marry a widow; which he accordingly did in the perſon of Catharine Parr, his ſixth wife, who was very near experiencing the fate of Anna Boleyn, and Catharine Howard; not for any affair of gallantry, but for happening to differ ſometimes from the king in matters of religion.

James V. king of Scotland, dying about this time, in the flower of his age, left no iſſue behind him but an infant daughter, the celebrated and unfortunate Mary Stuart. Henry VIII. was no ſooner informed of the death of his nephew, than he projected the ſcheme of uniting Scotland to his own dominions, by marrying prince Edward, his only ſon, to the heireſs of that kingdom. He accordingly entered into a treaty with the parliament of Scotland for that purpoſe; but as it was never executed, a knowledge of the particulars of it is of little conſequence.

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Henry's health had long been declining, and his approaching diſſolution was plainly foreſeen; but as it had been declared treaſon to foretell the king's death, no one durſt inform him of his condition, leſt in the tranſports of his fury, he ſhould order the author of ſuch intelligence to immediate puniſhment. At laſt this awful truth was made known to him; he ſignified his reſignation, and expired in the fifty-ſixth year of his age, and thirty eighth of his reign.

A. D. 1574.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLIV.

A general view of Europe, continued to the Peace of Chateau Cambreſis.

CHAP XLIV.

IN conſequence of Charles's reſolution to humble the proteſtant princes of Germany, his chief motive, as has been obſerved, for concluding a diſadvantageous peace with Francis; he ſent ambaſſadors to Conſtantinople, and concluded a diſhonourable truce with Solyman. Yet this emperor, deemed ſo powerful, was not able, even with the aſſiſtance of his brother Ferdinand, king of Hungary and Bohemia, to raiſe ſo large an army of germans as the confederates could bring into the field. Charles was therefore obliged, in order to raiſe an equal force, to borrow money and troops of pope Paul III.

Nothing could be more complete than the victory he obtained over the army of the confederates at Mulberg. The elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Heſſe, were among the number of his priſoners. The proteſtants were thrown into the greateſt conſternation; the conquered were loaded with taxes; and, in ſhort, altogether ſeemed to render him deſpotic in Germany. But the ſame thing now happened to him, as after the taking of Francis I. he loſt all the fruits

CHAP. XLIV.

of his good fortune. Pope Paul, who had ſo much befriended him before his victory, withdrew his troops, as ſoon as he ſaw him become too powerful. The new elector of Saxony, Maurice, on whom Charles had beſtowed the duchy of the conquered elector, ſoon declared againſt him, and even put himſelf at the head of the league.

At length this emperor, who had been ſo terrible to all Europe, is on the point of being made priſoner, with his brother, by the confederates, and is obliged to fly with the utmoſt precipitation and diſorder to the defiles of Inſpruc. At the ſame time, the french king, Henry II who had ſucceeded his father, Francis I. ſeized upon Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which have ever ſince remained in the houſe of France.

And now the poſſeſſor of Mexico and Peru is obliged to borrow two hundred thouſand gold crowns from Coſmo, of Florence, to endeavour to recover Metz; and having compromiſed matters with the proteſtants, that he might be more at liberty to revenge himſelf on the french king, he laid ſiege to that city, with an army of fifty thouſand men. This is one of the moſt memorable ſieges we meet with in hiſtory; and has immortalized the reputation of the duke of Guiſe, who defended the town ſixty-five days againſt the emperor's army, and at length obliged him

to

to abandon his deſign, after loſing one third of his forces. CHAP. XLIV.

In order to counterbalance theſe and other loſſes, the emperor concluded a marriage between his ſon Philip and Mary of England, in hopes of adding that kingdom to his other dominions. He alſo employed his utmoſt endeavours to perſuade his brother, Ferdinand, king of the romans, to cede the empire to Philip; but ſo diſagreeable a propoſal only ſerved to ſet Ferdinand and Philip at variance for ever.

At length wearied with ſo many efforts, grown old before his time, and deceived in every thing, he reſigned his crown to his ſon Philip, and renounced the ſociety of mankind at the age of fifty-four, at a time of life, in which the age and ambition of other men are in their full vigour, and when many inferior princes begin to appoint their miniſters, and enter upon the career of their greatneſs. A. D. 1556.

Charles retired to the monaſtery of St. Juſtus, in Eſtramadura, in Spain. He lived two years after his abdication. His actions are his moſt eloquent panegyric, and his hiſtory his beſt character. As no prince ever governed ſo extenſive an empire, including his american conqueſts, none ſeems ever to be endowed with more capacity for dominion.

Philip II. was maſter of Spain, of the dutchy of Milan, of the two Sicilies, and all the Netherlands,

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therlands. His ports were filled with ſhips, and his father had left him the beſt diſciplined troops in Europe, all commanded by perſons who had been the companions of his victories. His wife, Mary queen of England, wholly governed by his inſinuations, had declared war againſt France, only upon a letter from him. He might therefore reckon England as a kingdom, of which he was maſter. The ample harveſts of gold and ſilver which were ſent him from the new world, made him a more powerful prince than his father, Charles V. who had only enjoyed the firſt fruits of them.

Italy trembled for her liberty; which determined pope Paul IV. to ſide with France. He was deſirous, like all other popes who had gone before him, to ſettle a balance, which their hands were too weak to hold; and accordingly propoſed to Henry II. to give Naples and Sicily to one of the children of France.

It had long been the ambition of the french monarchs to ſubdue the duchy of Milan and the kingdom of the two Sicilies. The pope had thoughts of raiſing an army, and deſired Henry II. to let him have the famous Francis, duke of Guiſe, to command it; but moſt of the cardinals were in Philip's pay. Pope Paul was ill obeyed; he had but few troops, which ſerved only to expoſe Rome, to be taken and ſacked by the duke of Alva, Philip's general. The duke

of

of Guiſe arrives in Italy, and draws near to Rome, with a few troops; but no ſooner had he reached that city, when he heard that the french had loſt the fatal battle of St. Quintin, in Picardy. CHAP. XLIV.

Mary, of England, had furniſhed her huſband, Philip, with ten thouſand engliſh forces againſt the french. Philip came to London to ſee theſe troops embark, but not to head them himſelf. This army, joined with the flower of the ſpaniſh troops, commanded by the duke of Savoy, Philibert, Emanuel, one of the greateſt generals of his age, gained ſo complete a victory over the french army at St. Quintin, that hardly any of their infantry was left, the whole being either killed or taken priſoners.

All the ſchemes of Henry II. upon Italy were now vaniſhed. the duke of Guiſe was called home. In the mean time the victorious duke of Savoy took St. Quintin, and he might have marched to the gates of Paris; but Philip contented himſelf with paying a viſit to his victorious camp, and proved that great events depend frequently upon the characters of men. His character was to ſet little account by courage, and give all to politics. He ſuffered his enemy to recover breath, in hopes of gaining more advantage from a peace, the terms of which were in his power to dictate, than by thoſe victories, in which he could have no ſhare himſelf. He allowed

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lowed the duke of Guiſe time to return home to aſſemble an army, and put the kingdom in a poſture of defence.

A. D. 1558.

The taking of Calais, in the depth of winter, and driving the engliſh from the poſſeſſion of that important fortreſs, which they had kept for above two hundred and thirteen years, was an action which aſtoniſhed all Europe, raiſed the reputation of the duke of Guiſe above that of all the generals of his time. This conqueſt was more glorious and profitable than difficult. Queen Mary had left but a weak garriſon in Calais, and her fleet arrived only to ſee the ſtandards of France planted on the walls. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to her miniſtry, completed the averſion which the engliſh had entertained to her.

But while the duke of Guiſe thus revived the drooping ſpirits of the french, by the taking of Calais, and afterwards of Thionville, Philip's army obtained another conſiderable victory over marſhal de Fermes, near Gravelines, under the command of count Egmont; that very count Egmont, whom Philip afterwards cauſed to be beheaded, for defending the rights and liberties of his country.

At length both monarchs, grown tired of hoſtilities, a treaty of peace was concluded between them at Chateau Cambreſis. This war, like ſo many others, ended at laſt in marriage. Philip eſpouſed

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eſpouſed, for his third wife, the princeſs Iſabella, daughter of Henry II. who had been promiſed to his ſon, Don Carlos; and this unhappy match, is ſaid to have occaſioned the untimely fate of don Carlos and the princeſs.

The particulars of this treaty do not come within our limits to relate; ſuffice it to ſay, that all the cauſes of diſcord, which had ſo long embroiled the powerful monarchs of France and Spain, ſeemed to be wholly removed, or finally terminated by this famous treaty, which re-eſtabliſhed peace in Europe; almoſt every prince and ſtate in chriſtendom being comprehended as allies either of Henry or Philip.

Among theſe contracting powers were included the kings of Denmark, Sweden, and Poland. This circumſtance naturally leads us to caſt an eye on thoſe countries, which we have not had an opportunity of noticing, as they had no connexion with the general affairs of the continent. Meantime, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, for the ſake of perſpicuity, that Henry II. being killed in a tournament, his ſon, Francis II. a weak prince, and under age, already married to the queen of ſcots, ſucceeded to the crown of France.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLV.

Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, from the Union of theſe Kingdoms under Margaret Waldemar, ſurnamed the Semiramis of the North, to the Death of Guſtavus Vaſa.

CHAP. XLV. MARGARET, queen of Denmark, ſurnamed Semiramis of the north, had united the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, under one head; but this union, ſeemingly ſo well calculated for the tranquility of the north, proved the ſource of much diſcontent and many barbarous wars. The national antipathy between the ſwedes and danes, and the evident partiality ſhewn by Margaret and her ſucceſſors to the natives of the latter kingdom, rouſed the reſentment of the ſwedes, who were continually revolting; till at length they were finally ſubdued by Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, who reduced them to the condition of a conquered people. This cruel tyrant, ſurnamed the Nero of the north, and Troll, archbiſhop of Upſall, his miniſter and accomplice, formed the ſcheme of murdering the principal ſwediſh nobility; and to affectuate this purpoſe, the king, after ſwearing upon the goſpel, to forget what was paſt, gave an entertainment in his palace to all the

members

members of the ſenate. The tables were all covered; and they were in the midſt of their feſtivity, when Chriſtian and the archbiſhop aroſe from the table and left the room, but preſently returned again, followed by a body of armed men and executioners, and ninety-four perſons of diſtinction were publicly executed for defending the liberties of their country. The tyrants concluded their bloody feaſt, by the maſſacre of all the common people, without diſtinction of age or ſex. CHAP. XLV.

But Sweden afterwards found a deliverer and avenger, in Guſtavus Vaſa, a prince deſcended from the ancient kings of that country. He eſcaped from Denmark, where he had been impriſoned, and concealed himſelf in the habit of a peaſant, among the mountains of Delicarlia. There, deſerted by his companions and guide, who carried off his little treaſure, he was obliged to work under ground among the minors, to ſupply the neceſſities of nature. At length, after ſurmounting a thouſand difficulties, he engaged the ſavage, but warlike inhabitants of Delicarlia to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe, and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Every thing yielded to his valor and good fortune. His popularity every day increaſed. He was firſt choſen regent, and afterwards king of Sweden. A. D. 1523.

Guſtavius died in 1650, leaving behind him the glorious character of a patriot and a king.

Mean-

CHAP. XLV. Meanwhile Chriſtian, become obnoxious by his tyrannies, even to his daniſh ſubjects, was degraded from the throne, and his uncle Frederick, duke of Holſtein, was elected king of Denmark and Norway.

A. D. 1533. Frederick was ſucceeded in the daniſh throne by his ſon, Chriſtan III. one of the moſt prudent and proſperous princes of his age. He eſtabliſhed the proteſtant religion at the ſame time in Denmark and Norway, in imitation of the examples of Guſtavus, who had already introduced it into Sweden.

While Denmark and Sweden were riſing to diſtinction, Ruſſia remained buried in that barbariſm and obſcurity, from which it was called about the beginning of the preſent century, by the creative genius of Peter the Great, who made his country known and formidable to the reſt of Europe.

Poland began to be of ſome conſideration in the north, after the race of Jagellons came to the throne, and Lithuania was united to that kingdom.

Pruſſia, which has lately made ſo great a figure in the affairs of Europe, was only erected into a kingdom in 1700. It was originally conquered from the pagans of the north, by the teutontic knights, who held it upwards of three hundred years.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLVI.

England, from the Death of Henry VIII. till the Acceſſion of Elizabeth, together with ſome Account of the Affairs of Scotland.

HENRY VIII. by his will, left the crown firſt to prince Edward, his ſon, by Jane Seymour, then to lady Mary, his daughter, by Catharine of Spain; and next to lady Elizabeth, his daughter, by Anna Boleyn; though both princeſſes, had been declared illegitimate by parliament. CHAP. XLVI.

Edward VI. being only nine years of age at the time of his father's death; the duke of Somerſet was appointed protector of the kingdom during the king's minority. His firſt deſign was to force the ſcots to agree to a match between Edward and their young queen, Mary; in order to which, he marched an army into Scotland, and routed them in a bloody battle near Muſſelburg. A. D. 1547.

This victory, however, which ſeemed to threaten Scotland with final ſubjection, was of no real utility to England. It ſerved to make the ſcots throw themſelves inconſiderately into the arms of France, and ſend their young queen into that kingdom, who was there married to the

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dauphin, afterwards king of France, by the name Francis II.

The reign of Edward VI. which laſted only five years, and during which the nation was, or appeared to be of the proteſtant religion, was a ſcene of ſeditions and troubles. Thomas Seymour, high admiral of England, and the king's own uncle, was beheaded for having quarreled with his brother, the duke of Somerſet; who ſoon afterwards himſelf ſuffered the ſame fate, by the intrigues of the duke of Northumberland. This nobleman perſuaded the king, (who was in a bad ſtate of health,) under pretence of ſettling the proteſtant religion, to exclude by his laſt will and teſtament, his two ſiſters, Mary and Elizabeth, from the ſucceſſion to the crown, and to ſettle it upon Jane Grey, daughter to the duke of Suffolk, whom he had by Mary, daughter of Henry VII. which afterwards proved fatal, both to Jane, and the author of the project. Jane, who was wife to lord Guilford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, was proclaimed queen on the death of Edward VI. but Mary's right prevailed; and the firſt thing this queen did, after ſigning her contract of marriage with Philip II. was to condemn her rival to death. It availed her not that ſhe made a voluntary reſignation of her fatal dignity, which ſhe held but nine days; ſhe was led to execution with her huſband, father, and father-in-law. This was the third

third queen of England who had mounted the scaffold within less than twenty years. The protestant religion, in which she was educated, was the principal cause of her untimely fate. CHAP. XLVI.

Mary was no sooner established on the throne than she caused the roman catholic religion, which was abolished in her brother's time; as also, the pope's authority to be restored in England. It were endless to enumerate all the cruelties practised during this reign; near three hundred protestants having been brought to the stake, in the course of three years, on account of religion; besides, the savage barbarity on the one hand, and the patient constancy on the other, are so similar in all these martyrdoms, that a narration, very little agreeable in itself, would become altogether disgusting by its uniformity. However, Mary was not able to restore the church revenues, for fear of exasperating the greatest families who had them in their possession; but she was more successful in her attempts to engage the english in a war with France, at the instigation of her husband Philip; although, in the end, it turned out to her utter confusion. An army of ten thousand men were sent over to Flanders, who, by their bravery, chiefly obtained the victory of St. Quintin; for which reason Philip gave the city to be plundered by the english.

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Henry II. however, notwithſtanding the unfortunate battle of St. Quintin, made himſelf maſter of Calais, which the engliſh had held upwards of two hundred years. The recovery of this important place was owing, as it has been already obſerved, to the vigilant activity of the duke of Guiſe, who undertook, in the depth of winter, and ſucceeded in an enterprize that ſurpriſed his own countrymen no leſs than his enemies.

This event ſo much affected Mary herſelf, whoſe health had been long in a declining ſtate that ſhe fell into a lingering fever, which put an end to her ſhort and inglorious reign.

A. D. 1558.

After the death of her ſiſter, Elizabeth ſucceeded to the throne of England; and the firſt act of her adminiſtation was, to re-eſtabliſh the proteſtant religion. The joy of the people was equally great, on account of this change in religion, and the queen's acceſſion; the perſecuting cruelty of Mary had made more proteſtants than the pious indulgence of Edward: and the auſpicious commencement of Elizabeth's reign prognoſticated that felicity and glory which uniformly attended it, till its concluſion.

CHAP.

CHAP. XLVII.

England, Scotland, and France, from the Peace of Cheteau Cambreſis, to the Death of Charles IX.

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THE treaty of Cheteau Cambreſis, though it eſtabliſhed peace, by ſettling the claims of the contending parties, by no means ſecured laſting tranquility to Europe. The reformed opinions had already made conſiderable progreſs both in France and the low countries; and Philip and Henry were equally reſolved to extirpate hereſy throughout their dominions. The horrors of the inquiſition, long familiar to Spain, were not only increaſed in that kingdom, but extended to Italy and the Netherlands; and though the premature death of Henry II. ſuſpended for a while the rage of perſecution in France; other cauſes of diſcord aroſe, and religion was made uſe of by each party to light the flames of civil war.

A new ſource of diſcord alſo aroſe between France and England. The guiſes, who at that time made a handle of religion, to eſtabliſh their power in France, made uſe of the ſame methods to ſet their niece, Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland, on the engliſh throne. Maſters of the finances and armies of France, they ſent money and troops over to Scotland, under pretence of aſſiſting the catholics of that kingdom againſt the

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proteſtants, Mary Stuart, who was married to Francis II. king of France, took upon her the title of queen of England, as being deſcended from Henry VII. All the engliſh, ſcotch, and iriſh catholics, were in her intereſt. Elizabeth was not yet ſo firmly ſettled on the throne, but that religious cabal might have ſhaken her authority. However, ſhe diſperſed this firſt ſtorm, ſent an army to the relief the ſcotch proteſtants, and obliged the queen regent of Scotland, Mary's mother, to ſend the french troops home within twenty days.

A. D. 1650.

Francis II. dying, ſhe obliged Mary Stuart to quit the title of queen of England. By her intrigues, ſhe prevailed upon the parliament of Edinburgh to eſtabliſh the reformed religion in Scotland; and by this artful management ſhe brought into her intereſt a country from which ſhe had every thing to fear.

Scarcely was ſhe freed from theſe inquietudes, when ſhe received freſh alarms of a more dangerous kind from Philip II. This monarch was indiſpenſably her friend ſo long as Mary Stuart, as heireſs to Elizabeth, had a proſpect of uniting in her own perſon the crowns of France, England, and Scotland; but Francis II. being now dead, and his widow returned helpleſs into Scotland, Philip had only the proteſtants to fear, and therefore became an implacable enemy to Elizabeth.

A. D. 1561.

Happily

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Happily the adherents of the new doctrine were not without a ſupporter, nor the Spaniſh greatneſs without a counterpoiſe. The courſe of events had placed Elizabeth in a ſituation diametrically oppoſite to that of Philip, who, contrary to the common maxims of policy, ſaw an advantage in ſupporting the eſtabliſhed government of France; and Elizabeth, by a concurrence of circumſtances, no leſs ſingular in protecting a faction, ready to ſubvert it.

Francis II. dying without iſſue, his brother Charles, who was only ten years of age, ſucceeded him on the throne. Catharine de Medici, the queen mother, who was appointed guardian to her ſon, found herſelf placed between the proteſtants and the catholics, the condès, and the guiſes. The conſtable Montmorenci was at the head of a ſeparate faction. Diviſion reigned in the court, the city, and the provinces. Catharine could only negociate, inſtead of reigning. Her maxim of dividing all parties, that ſhe might be ſole miſtreſs, increaſed the troubles and misfortunes of the ſtate. She began by appointing a conference to be held between the catholics and proteſtants at Poiſſi. The conſequence of this conference was, the iſſue of an edict, permitting the proteſtants to have preaching places without the city, and this edict of pacification proved the ſource of the civil wars.

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The duke of guiſe, as he was going through Vaſſi, a town on the borders of Champagne, came upon ſome calviniſts, who, in conſequence of the privileges granted them by the edict, were ſinging pſalms, after their manner, in a barn. His ſervants fell upon, and inſulted theſe poor people; killed about ſixty of them, and wounded and diſperſed the reſt. Upon this, there was a general riſing of the proteſtants in almoſt every part of the kingdom; and the nation became divided between the prince of Condè and the duke of Guiſe. Philip II. ſent ſix thouſand men, with ſome ſupply of money, to reinforce the catholic party; and the prince of Condè employed ſome german troops to complete the deſtruction of the kingdom.

The firſt pitched battle between the cotholics and the reformed, was fought near Dreux. This battle was remarkable by both generals being made priſoners; Montmorenci, who commanded the king's army in quality of conſtable; and the prince of Condè, who was at the head of the reformed army. The duke of Guiſe, who was ſecond in command to the conſtable, gained the battle; and Condè's lieutenant, Coligni, ſaved his army.

After this victory, the duke of Guiſe laid ſiege to Orleans. This city was the centre of the Proteſtant party; and he was on the point of taking it,

it, when he was aſſaſſinated by Poltrat; a young gentleman, whoſe frantic zeal inſtigated him to that criminal action. CHAP. XLVII. A. D. 1653.

It was not ſufficient that the ſpaniards, germans, and ſwiſs, were called in to help the french to deſtroy each other; the engliſh were likewiſe invited to join in the general ruin. Elizabeth ſent three thouſand men to garriſon Havre de Grace, then in the poſſeſſion of the hugonot party; but the conſtable Montmorenci, who had been exchanged for the prince of Condè, after great difficulty, drove them out again.

Peace continued between England and Scotland; and even a cordial friendſhip ſeemed to have taken place between Elizabeth and Mary. They made profeſſions of the moſt entire affection. But this appearance was of ſhort duration. Theſe two queens were rivals in all reſpects; they were rivals in nations, in crowns, in religion, in underſtanding, and in beauty. The queen of ſcots, encouraged the catholic faction in England, and the queen of England, ſtill more powerfully ſupported the proteſtant party in Scotland, Elizabeth gained ſo much the aſcendancy by her intrigues, that for a long time ſhe prevented Mary from concluding ſecond nuptials, where ſhe had an inclination.

However Mary, in ſpite of the cabals of her rival, and of the ſcottiſh parliament, which was wholly made up of proteſtants, headed by her natural

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tural brother, earl of Murray, marries Henry Stewart, lord Darnley, who was her couſin, and a catholic like herſelf. Elizabeth, upon this, tampers in private with Mary's proteſtant ſubjects, and excites them to take up arms. The queen of ſcots purſues the rebels in perſon, and obliges them to retreat into England. Thus far, every thing ſeemed to favour her, and confouned her rival.

Mary had a ſoft and tender heart: this was the beginning of all her misfortunes. An italian muſician, named David Rizzio, had inſinuated himſelf too far in her good graces. He played well upon ſeveral inſtruments, and had a very agreeable voice. He was greatly inſtrumental in the queen's marriage with Darnley, and not leſs ſo in that diſlike ſhe afterwards took to him. Darnley, who had only the name of king, and ſaw himſelf deſpiſed by his wife, grew incenſed and jealous; and one evening that he knew the queen was in her apartment, he took with him a few armed men, and entered the room, where ſhe was at ſupper with Rizzio, and one of the ladies of her court. They overturned the table, and ſlew Rizzio before the queen's eyes, who, in vain, attempted to cover his body with her own. Mary was at that time five months gone with child; the ſight of the naked and bloody weapons made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion on her, that it was communicated to the infant in her womb. This was

James,

James, afterwards king of England and Scotland, who was born four months after this melancholy affair, and who all his lifetime trembled at the ſight of a drawn ſword, in deſpite of his utmoſt endeavours to overcome this diſpoſition of his organs. So great is the force of nature, and ſo powerfully does ſhe act by ways impenetrable to us. CHAP. XLVII.

The queen ſoon reſumed her authority, was reconciled to the earl of Murray, proſecuted the murderer's of Rizzio, and entered into a freſh engagement with the earl of Bothwell. Theſe new amours produced the death of the king her huſband. It is ſaid, an attempt was made to poiſon him, but that the ſtrength of his conſtitution got the better of the drugs they had given him: however, it is certain, that he was blown up near Edinburgh, in a lone houſe, from whence the queen had previouſly removed moſt of her valuable effects. The parliament and the whole nation openly charged Bothwell with this murder; and in the midſt of the general cry for juſtice, Mary contrived to have herſelf carried off by this aſſaſſin, whoſe hands were yet ſtained with her huſband's blood, and was afterwards publicly married to him. A. D. 1567.

Theſe complicated villainies effectually rouſed the ſcots; Mary was abandoned by her army, and obliged to yield herſelf priſoner to the confederates. Bothwell fled into the Orkneys; the

queen

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queen was obliged to reſign the crown to her ſon; but was allowed to appoint a regent during his minority; ſhe named her brother, earl of Murray; this nobleman, however, reproached her in the bittereſt manner with her paſt conduct. At length ſhe eſcaped from her confinement: Murray's harſh and ſevere temper had procured her a new party. She found means to raiſe ſix thouſand men, but ſhe was ſoon defeated, and obliged to take ſhelter on the engliſh borders. Elizabeth, at firſt, gave her an honourable reception at Carliſle: but privately intimated to her, that, as ſhe was accuſed by the public voice of the murder of her huſband, it behoved her to vindicate herſelf; and that ſhe might depend on her protection, if ſhe found her innocent.

A. D. 1569.

Elizabeth now made herſelf arbitreſs between Mary and the ſcottiſh regency. The regent came himſelf in perſon to Hampton Court, and conſented to depoſit the papers, containing the proofs againſt his ſiſter, in the hands of commiſſioners, to be appointed by the queen of England. The unfortunate Mary, on the other hand, who was ſtill detained a priſoner, excepted againſt the engliſh commiſſioners, unleſs the ambaſſadors of France and Spain were joined with them. Nevertheleſs, Elizabeth ſtill cauſed this unaccountable trial to be carried on, and indulged herſelf in the cruel pleaſure of ſeeing her rival

pine

pine away in confinement, without coming to any determination concerning her fate. CHAP. XLVII.

Theſe diſaſters of the royal houſe of Scotland were reflected back upon the nation, which was rent by factions that aroſe from anarchy. The earl of Murray was murdered by one of theſe factions, which ſheltered itſelf under the authority of Mary's name. Elizabeth ſent an army to keep Scotland in awe. She likewiſe procured the regency of that kingdom for the duke of Lenox, father to the murdered king.

At the ſame time a conſpiracy was formed in England for delivering Mary from her confinement; and pope Pius V. very indiſcreetly iſſued a bull of excommunication againſt Elizabeth. This ſtep, which was intended to deliver Mary, only haſtened her downfal. The two queens entered into mutual negociations; the one from her throne, the other from a priſon. It was Mary's greateſt misfortune to have a number of friends in her diſgrace. The duke of Norfolk wanted to marry her, in hopes of a revolution, and reckoning on Mary's right of ſucceſſion to Elizabeth. Several parties were formed in her favour in London, which were weak indeed; but were capable of being ſtrengthened by forces from Spain, and the intrigues of the court of Rome. Theſe machinations, however, coſt the duke of Norfolk his head, who was ſentenced to die by his peers, for having ſolicited ſuccours from

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from the pope and the king of Spain, in Mary's behalf. The duke of Norfolk's death, rivetted this unhappy princeſs's chains. In the joyleſs ſituation of a priſon, we muſt leave her for a while, and take a view of the civil wars on the continent; the iſſue of which nearly concerned both the britiſh queens.

Elizabeth was ſenſible, that as head of the proteſtant party, her ſafety in a great meaſure depended on the commotions in France, and the Low Countries; ſhe therefore contributed, both ſecretly and openly, to enable and encourage the reformers to ſupport the ſtruggle. A battle was fought on the plains of St. Denis; where, though the old conſtable, Moutmorenci, the general of the catholics, was ſlain; the hugonots were defeated by reaſon of the inferiority of number. This defeat was followed by another at Jarnac, where the prince of Condè was killed.

But the loſs of this great leader did not break the ſpirit of the hugonots. Coligni, whoſe courage was ſuperior to all difficulties, ſtill ſupported the cauſe; and having placed at the head of the party the prince of Navarre, only ſixteen years of age, and the young prince of Condè, to both of whom he acted as father; he encouraged the proteſtants rather to periſh bravely in the field, than by the hands of the executioner. He found means to procure a ſupply of troops from Germany, though unable to pay them for their ſervice;

vice; and when defeated again at the battle of Moncontour, by the duke of Anjou, at the head of the catholic army, he ſtill repaired the loſſes of his party. CHAP. XLVII.

At length, after numberleſs deſolations, a new peace ſeemed to promiſe the kingdom a breathing time; but this peace only prepared the way for the fatal maſſacre of St. Bartholomew. This dreadful day had been meditated and planned for above two years. Charles IX. and his mother, Catharine de Medici, in order to lull the hugonots into ſecurity, offered the princeſs Margaret in marriage to the young king of Navarre. A. D. 1572.

Coligni, the prince of Condè, and all the moſt conſiderable men of the proteſtant party, went chearfully to Paris, in order to aſſiſt at the celebration of thoſe nuptials, which, it was hoped, would finally appeaſe the religious animoſities. Coligni was wounded by a ſhot from a window, a few days after the marriage; yet the court ſtill found means to quiet the ſuſpicions of the hugonots, till the eve of St. Bartholomew, when a maſſacre was commenced, to which there is nothing parallel in the hiſtory of mankind, either from the diſſimulation that led to it, or the cruelty and barbarity with which it was put in execution. The proteſtants, as a body, were devoted to deſtruction; the king of Navarre, and the prince of Condè, only being excepted from the general doom, and that on condition they ſhould change

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change their religion. Charles, in perſon, led the way to this butchery, which was chiefly conducted by the duke of Guiſe. About five hundred gentlemen, and men of rank, among whom was the admiral Coligni, were murdered in Paris alone; and near ten thouſand perſons of inferior condition. The ſame barbarous orders were ſent to all the provinces; and it is ſuppoſed, that ſixty thouſand proteſtants were butchered in different parts of the kingdom.

But this maſſacre, inſtead of annihilating the hugonots, only rendered them more formidable. Animated by the moſt violent deſpair, they aſſembled in large bodies, or crouded into the cities and fortreſſes in the poſſeſſion of their party. Rochelle, before which, in a manner, was aſſembled the whole force of France, ſuſtained a ſiege of eight months, during which the citizens repelled ſeveral attacks, and obliged the duke of Anjou, who conducted the attack, to grant them an advantageous peace, after the loſs of twenty thouſand men.

The miſeries of France increaſed every day. Charles grew jealous of his brothers, and many of the moſt conſiderable men, among the catholics, diſpleaſed with the meaſures of the court, favoured the progreſs of the hugonots; all things relapſed into confuſion. In the midſt of theſe diſorders died Charles IX. who, inſtead of repenting of his violent councils, called aloud for

new

new ſeverities, even in the agony of death. As he left no male iſſue, he was ſucceeded in the throne of France by his brother, the duke of Anjou, lately elected king of Poland. But before we carry further the civil wars of that kingdom, or enter upon the hiſtory of thoſe of the Low Countries, it will be neceſſary to turn back to the affairs of the empire, Spain, Italy, and Turkey. CHAP. XLVII.

CHAP. XLVIII.

Germany, from the Reſignation of Charles V. to the Death of Maximilian II. with ſome Account of the Affairs of Spain, Italy, and Turkey, during that period.

CHAP. XLVIII. CHARLES V. as it has already been obſerved, was ſucceeded in the imperial throne by his brother Ferdinand I. This prince endeavoured, in vain, to reconcile the three religions which divided the empire. The old maxim "divide to "reign," by no means ſuited him: Germany muſt be united before he could be powerful. His ſon Maximilian II. who ſucceeded him, was ſtill leſs the ſovereign than Ferdinand I. he was obliged to begin his reign with a war againſt the turks. Solyman I. whoſe valour and ambition had been ſo long terrible to chriſtendom, ſent a fleet and army to reduce the iſland of Malta, whence he hoped to drive the knights of St. John, whom he had formerly expelled from Rhodes; and who ſtill continued, according to the principles of their order, to annoy the infidels. But the rock of Malta proved fatal to Solyman's glory. His general, Muſtapha, after a ſiege of almoſt five months, and the loſs of twenty-four thouſand men, was obliged to abandon the enterpriſe.

A D. 1565.

Solyman,

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Solyman, in revenge of this diſappointment and diſgrace, the greateſt that his arms had ever ſuffered, ravaged the coaſts of Italy; and invading Hungary in perſon, with a powerful army, laid ſiege to Zigeth. This city was then the Bulwark of Stiria, againſt the turks. It had a garriſon of two thouſand three hundred men, under the command of the brave count Zerini, who defended it long with incredible valour, againſt the force of Solyman; while Maximilian lay in the neighbourhood, with an army not inferior to that of the beſiegers, without daring to attempt its relief. At length, all the works being deſtroyed, and the caſtle ſet on fire by the enemy, Zerini ſallied out, at the head of three hundred choſen men, and died gallantly with his ſword in his hand. A. D. 1566.

During the ſiege of Zigeth, before which the turks loſt upwards of thirty thouſand men, Solyman expired in the ſeventy-ſixth year of his age. He was ſucceeded in the ottoman throne by his ſon Selim II. who began his reign with concluding a truce of twelve years with Maximilian.

In conſequence of this truce, Germany long enjoyed repoſe, while all the neighbouring nations were diſquieted by wars, either foreign or domeſtick. Selim, in the mean time, was not idle: he took from the venetians the iſle of Cyprus, in 1571; when the governor, Bragadins, was flayed alive by the Turks, in revenge for the

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dreadful loſs they ſuffered in the ſiege of that place; amounting, it is ſaid, to no leſs than four ſcore thouſand men.

The fate of Cyprus alarmed pope Pius V. and the king of Spain. Philip II. whoſe italian dominions were in danger, entered into a league with the pope and the venetians againſt the turks. A formidable armament of two hundred gallies, and ſeveral other veſſels, were ſuddenly fitted out. The celebrated Don John of Auſtria, a natural ſon of Charles V. was appointed to the chief command.

A. D. 1571. The turkiſh fleet, which conſiſted of about two hundred and fifty gallies, was attacked near the gulph of Lepanto, and entirely defeated, with the loſs of one hundred and fifty gallies; yet the victors gained nothing but glory. The pope was ſo tranſported with the ſucceſs of the enterpriſe, that he exclaimed in a kind of holy extaſy, "There "was a man ſent from God, and his name was "John;" alluding to Don John of Auſtria. Two years after, Don John made himſelf maſter of Tunis, a conqueſt which Spain enjoyed only a ſingle year. The turks retook it, and put the garriſon to the ſword.

A. D. 1576. During all theſe bloody tranſactions, the mere recital of which makes the human heart ſhrink from the horrors of war, Germany continued to enjoy tranquility under the mild government of Maximilian. He died while preparing to ſup-

port

port his election to the kingdom of Poland, and was ſucceeded in the imperial throne by his ſon Rodolph II. a prince who inherited the pacific diſpoſition of his father, and preſerved Germany, during his whole reign, from thoſe pernicious wars which after his death embroiled all chriſtendom.

We muſt now return to new horrors; to behold chriſtians and fellow citizens exerciſing on each other as great barbarities as ever were exerciſed upon the followers of Chriſt by thoſe of Mahomet.

CHAP. XLIX.

A general View of Europe, from the Death of Charles IX. to the Acceſſion of Henry IV. to the Throne of France; including the Riſe of the Republic of Holland. The Cataſtrophe of Don Sebaſtian, King of Portugal. The Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots; and the Defeat of the Spaniſh Armada.

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A PARTICULAR detail of the many great and ſingular events which the period before us affords, would rather perplex the memory than inform the judgment. We ſhall, therefore, only give a general ſurvey. Conſequences are chiefly to be noted.

The duke of Anjou, who ſucceeded his brother Charles, under the name of Henry III. found the kingdom in the greateſt diſorder imaginable. The people were divided into theological factions, furious from their zeal, and mutually enraged from the injuries which they had committed or ſuffered. Each party had devoted itſelf to leaders, whoſe commands were of more weight than the will of the ſovereign. The catholics were entirely guided by the counſels of the duke of Guiſe and his family; the king of Navarre and the prince of Condè placed themſelves at the head of the hugonots.

nots. Henry III. reſolved to act as an umpire between the parties; and by moderating the difference, reduce both to a dependence upon himſelf. In the proſecution of this moderating ſcheme, he entered into a treaty with the proteſtants, and granted them a peace on the moſt advantageous conditions. CHAP. LXIX.

This treaty gave the higheſt diſguſt to the catholics, and afforded the duke of Guiſe the deſired pretence of declaiming againſt the conduct of the king; and of laying the foundation of that famous league, projected by his uncle the cardinal of Lorrain. The leaguers pretended that their union was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, the king, and the kingdom; and were not aſhamed to cover, even with the maſk of patriotiſm, the moſt determined ſpirit of rebellion. Henry thought to divert the force of the league from the throne, by declaring himſelf the chief of it. An abſurd meaſure, which encouraged and ſtrengthened a party whence he had every thing to dread.

Elizabeth, who always conſidered her intereſts as connected with the proſperity of the french proteſtants, and the depreſſion of the duke of Guiſe, had repeatedly ſupplied the hugonots with conſiderable ſums of money. Philip, on the other hand, had declared himſelf protector of the league; had entered into the cloſeſt correſpondence with the duke of Guiſe, and employed all his autho-

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rity in ſupporting the credit of that factitious leader. The ſubjection of the hugonots, he flattered himſelf, would be followed by the ſubmiſſion of the flemings: theſe people had imbibed the doctrine of the reformation; and Philip, whoſe thirſt of heretical blood could not be allayed, was deſirous that the inquiſition ſhould be inveſted with the ſame powers in Italy and Flanders, as in Spain. But the milaneſe and neapolitans refuſed to admit that tribunal, whoſe yoke he endeavoured to impoſe upon them; and the love of liberty being more congenial to the flemings, produced more dreadful convulſions.

The duke of Alva, a fit inſtrument in the hands of ſuch a deſpot, was employed by Philip to put this deſign into execution; he conducted into the low countries a powerful body of ſpaniſh and italian veterans.

The appearance of ſuch an army, with the inexorable and vindictive character of their leader, ſtruck the flemings with terror and conſternation. Their apprehenſions were but too juſt. The privileges of the provinces were openly and expreſsly aboliſhed by an edict; arbitrary and ſanguinary tribunals were erected; the counts of Egmont and Horn, notwithſtanding their paſt ſervices in war, were brought to the ſcaffold, and nothing was heard of but ſeizure, confiſcation, impriſonment, torture, and death. The people in the neighbourhood of Brille, rendered deſperate by that complication

A. D. 1571.

complication of cruelty, oppreſſion, and perſecution under which they and their countrymen laboured, flew to arms, defeated a ſpaniſh detachment, and put themſelves under the protection of the prince of Orange, who reſolved to reſcue his country from oppreſſion. He inflamed the inhabitants by every motive which religious zeal, reſentment, or love of freedom could inſpire. In a ſhort time almoſt the whole province of Holland, and alſo that of Zealand, threw off the ſpaniſh yoke; and the prince, by uniting the revolted towns in a league, laid the foundation of that illuſtrious republic, whoſe arms and policy long made ſo conſiderable a figure in the tranſactions of Europe, and whoſe commerce, frugality, and perſevering induſtry, is ſtill the wonder of the world.

The love of liberty transformed into heroes men little accuſtomed to arms, and naturally averſe from war. Our confined plan will not permit us to give a circumſtantial account of the military operations of each party; ſuffice it to ſay, that the ſpaniards were continually repulſed. The duke of Alva petitioned to be recalled from his government, and boaſted at his departure, that in the courſe of five years he had made eighteen thouſand heretics periſh by the hands of the public executioner.

Requeſens, who ſucceeded him, began his government, by pulling down the inſulting ſtatue

of

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of his predeceſſor, erected at Antwerp. He alſo publiſhed an act of indemnity; for Philip began to dread that violent remedies would ſtill increaſe the evil; but it produced no effect; the people rather chuſing to continue the war, than to truſt the clemency of a perfidious king. Requeſens, by his virtues and great abilities, would have been capable of reſtoring affairs; but he died in 1576. Leyden was beſieged by his troops, but the dutch opened the dykes and ſluices; and the ſpaniards were obliged to raiſe the ſiege after a great loſs.

Don John of Auſtria, who was appointed ſucceſſor to Requeſens, ſet out with full powers to grant the rebels all their demands, except liberty of conſcience. All the gentle methods at firſt employed by don John, proved ineffectual; he then had recourſe to arms.

The flemings, knowing the conteſt muſt prove in the end unequal, between a mighty monarchy and two ſmall provinces, offered the ſovereignty of their country to Elizabeth; but the dread of incurring the reproach of uſurpation, or not being able to keep poſſeſſion of that principality, made her wiſely averſe from an attempt which was too hazardous. She therefore contented herſelf with entering into a defenſive league with the riſing republic, to whoſe aſſiſtance ſhe ſent a body of troops, under the command of her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter.

But

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But the flemings, while ſtrengthening themſelves by foreign alliances, were weakened by diſſentions at home. Jealous of the prince of Orange, they choſe for their governor, the archduke Matthias, brother of the emperor Randolph II. and the prince of Orange ſet up the duke of Anjou, formerly duke of Alençon. Thus was torn in pieces, a country, where the quarrels of religion, and the abuſes of deſpotiſm, gave birth to every evil.

Philip II. jealous of his brother, don John, and ſuſpicious of his deſigns, did not give the ſuccours neceſſary in ſo critical a circumſtance; notwithſtanding which, he defeated the dutch at Gemblours, and took ſeveral places; but he died in the midſt of his triumphs, leaving the command to his nephew, Alexander Farneſe, prince of Parma, the worthy ſucceſſor of a hero.

While Philip was loſing the United Provinces, fortune threw in his way a new ſovereignty. Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal, fmit with the paſſion for military glory, determined to ſignalize himſelf againſt the moors in Africa. In conſequence of this direction of mind, he eſpouſed the cauſe of Muly Hamet, whom Muly Moloch, his uncle, had diſpoſſeſſed of the kingdom of Fez and Morocco; and contrary to the advice of his wiſeſt counſellors, embarked for Africa, with an army of twenty thouſand men. The army of the enemy was infinitely ſuperior; but that circumſtance A. D. 1579.

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ſtance only rouſed the courage of Don Sebaſtian; he braved the danger, fought, and was ſlain, and almoſt all the chriſtians periſhed, or were taken priſoners. The two mooriſh kings loſt their lives, as well as the king of Portugal.

Sebaſtian leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his uncle, cardinal Henry; who alſo dying without children, a number of competitors aroſe for the crown. Among theſe was the king of Spain, the duke of Braganza, don Antonio, prior of Crato, the duke of Savoy, the duke of Parma, Catherine de Medici, and even the pope, who attempted to renew the obſolete claim of the holy ſee to the ſovereignty of Portugal. Philip's claim was not the beſt, but he had moſt power to ſupport it. The old duke of Alva, who had been for ſome time in diſgrace, like a maſtiff unchained for fighting, was recalled to court, put at the head of an army, and gained two victories over
A. D. 1582. don Antonia, who, of all the other competitors, alone pretended to aſſert his title by arms. Philip was crowned in Liſbon, and a price was ſet on the head of Antonia.

A price was alſo ſet on the head of the prince of Orange, when it was known in Spain, that he formed the famous Union of Utrecht, between the States of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frieſland, Groningen, Overyſſel, and Guelderland; and that theſe ſtates had withdrawn their allegiance from Philip.

The

The archduke Matthias having returned home, the duke of Anjou attempted to make himſelf abſolute, to ſeize upon the towns, and aggrandize his authority by force; by which proceedings he only wrought his own ruin, and was obliged to return into France, where he died in 1584. Elizabeth had flattered him with hopes of marriage, and even engaged herſelf by promiſes; but ſhe deceived him, as ſhe had done many other princes, to whom ſhe had given hopes of her hand. CHAP. XLIX.

The prince of Orange, after having eſcaped two conſpiracies, fell a victim to a fanatic, named Gerard, who fancied himſelf commanded by heaven to commit that murder. The ſtates elected his ſon, Maurice, their ſtadtholder, and captain general by ſea and land. This prince was, at this time, only eighteen years old; but ſuch marks of genius diſtinguiſhed his character, as approved him worthy of the dignity to which he was raiſed; and he was oppoſed to the duke of Parma, the greateſt general of that, or perhaps any other age. A. D. 1584.

This fanaticiſm, which proved fatal to the prince of Orange, was likely to produce the ſame effect on Elizabeth. William Parry, an engliſh gentleman, and a convert to the catholic religion, thought he could not perform a more acceptable ſervice to heaven than to take away the life of his ſovereign: he came over to England to execute his

CHAP. XLIX. his bloody purpoſe; but happily his deſign was diſcovered, and he ſuffered the puniſhment his crime deſerved.

A. D. 1584. Two years after was formed a conſpiracy of the ſame kind, but more formidable. Anthony Babington, a young gentleman of fortune, inſtigated by John Ballard, a popiſh prieſt of Rheims, engaged in a conſpiracy againſt the life of Elizabeth, as a neceſſary prelude to the deliverance of the queen of ſcots, and the re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion in England. But Walſingham, ſecretary of ſtate, diſcovered the whole project, cauſed the conſpirators to be ſeized, fourteen of whom were executed for their treaſonous deſign.

A. D. 1586.

The ſcene that followed was new and extraordinary. On the trial of the conſpirators it appeared, that the queen of ſcots, who had held a correſpondence with Babington, had encouraged him in his treaſonable enterpriſe; and it was reſolved by Elizabeth, and her miniſters, to bring Mary alſo to a public trial, as being acceſſary to the conſpiracy. Her papers were ſeized, her principal domeſtics arreſted, and her two ſecretaries ſent priſoners to London. After the neceſſary information had been obtained, forty commiſſioners appointed under the great ſeal, together with five of the judges, were ſent to Fotheringay caſtle, where Mary was now confined, to hear and decide this great cauſe.

Mary

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Mary at firſt refuſed to acknowledge the juriſdiction of her judges; but at laſt imprudently ſuffered herſelf to be prevailed on to appear before the commiſſioners; who after hearing her defence, adjourned to London, where they pronounced ſentence of death on that unfortunate princeſs. The ſentence, after many heſitations and delays, was carried into execution. A. D. 1587.

Such was the fate of Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland, and dowager of France, one of the moſt amiable and accompliſhed of her ſex; who in the forty-fifth year of her age, and the nineteenth year of her captivity, fell a victim to the jealouſy and the fears of an offended rival. But though Mary's trial and execution were arbitrary, hiſtory will not permit us to ſuppoſe that her actions were at no time criminal. With all the excellencies both of body and mind which can adorn the female character, ſhe had many of the weakneſſes of a woman; and our ſympathy with her long and accumulated ſufferings, ſeen through the medium of her beauties, only perhaps could prevent us from viewing her, notwithſtanding her elegant qualities, with ſome degree of that abhorrence which is excited by the pollution of the marriage bed, and the guilt of murder.

Elizabeth, when informed of Mary's execution, affected the utmoſt ſurpriſe and concern. Sighs, tears, and lamentations were all employed to diſplay the greatneſs of her ſorrow. She even undertook

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dertook to make the world believe that the queen of ſcots, her dear ſiſter and kinſwoman, had been put to death without her knowledge, and contrary to her inclination; and, in order to complete this farce, ſhe commanded Daviſon, her ſecretary, to be thrown into priſon, under pretence that he had exceeded his commiſſion, in diſpatching the fatal warrant, which, although ſhe had ſigned, ſhe never meant to carry into execution.

Elizabeth hearing that Philip was ſecretly preparing that prodigious armament which had for its object no leſs than the entire conqueſt of England, ſent Sir Francis Drake with a fleet to intercept his ſupplies, to pillage his coaſts, and deſtroy his ſhipping; and that gallant commander, who was the firſt engliſhman that circumnavigated the globe, was ſo ſucceſsful as to burn in the harbour of Cadiz, an hundred veſſels laden with ammunition and naval ſtores.

A. D. 1588. At length the invincible armada, as it was called, ſet ſail from the port of Liſbon, with one hundred and fifty large ſhips, manned with twenty thouſand ſoldiers. The duke of Parma was ready with tranſports, and an army of thirty thouſand men, which he had raiſed in Flanders, to join Philip the inſtant of his landing in England. It ſeemed impoſſible for the engliſh ſhips, which were no more than ſmall barks, in compariſon with thoſe of the ſpaniards, to ſtand againſt the force of theſe floating citadels. Nevertheleſs this well

well concerted ſcheme failed in almoſt every part. The engliſh ſoon appeared with a fleet of one hundred ſail, commanded by lord Howard, of Effingham; and notwithſtanding their inferiority of numbers and ſtrength, ſtopped the progreſs of this formidable fleet. They took ſeveral of the Spaniſh ſhips, and diſperſed the reſt by means of fire ſhips; a ſtorm ſeconded the efforts of the engliſh; and not one half of the fleet returned to Spain. Philip, whoſe command of temper was equal to his ambition, received with an air of tranquility the news of ſo humbling a diſaſter. I "ſent my fleet," ſaid he, "to combat the eng-"liſh, not the elements. God be praiſed that the "calamity is not greater."

While the naval power of Spain was receiving this ſignal blow, great revolutions happened in France. The hugonots, notwithſtanding the valour of the king of Navarre, who had gained at Coutras a complete victory over the royal army, were reduced to the greateſt extremity by the power of the league; and the exorbitant ambition of the duke of Guiſe, joined to the idolatrous admiration of the catholics, who conſidered him as a ſaviour, and the king, as unworthy of the throne, only could have preſerved the reformers from ruin.

Henry, having no reſource in the laws, thought he could preſerve himſelf by an act of violence, and cauſed the duke, and cardinal of Guiſe, to be

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aſſaſſinated. Theſe cruel executions, which their neceſſity alone can excuſe, had an effect very different from what Henry expected. The partizans of the league were inflamed with the utmoſt rage againſt him, and every where flew to arms. The doctors of the Sorbonne had the arrogance to declare, "that the people were releaſed from the "oath of allegiance to Henry of Valois;" and the duke of Mayenne, brother to the duke of Guiſe, was choſen head of the league.

In this extremity the king, almoſt abandoned by his catholic ſubjects, entered into a confederacy with the hugonots and the king of Navarre. The two kings, with their united forces, advanced to the gates of Paris, and were ready to cruſh the league, when Henry III. was ſtabbed by James Clement, a dominican prieſt. This aſſaſſination left the ſucceſſion open to the king of Navarre; who, as next heir to the crown, aſſumed the government under the title of Henry IV. But the reign of this great prince, and the various difficulties which he was obliged to encounter before he could ſettle his kingdom, muſt be referred to a future chapter.

CHAP. L.

A general View of Europe, from the Acceſſion of Henry IV. to the Peace of Vervins.

CHAP. L.

THE reign of Henry IV. juſtly ſtiled the Great, is one of the moſt memorable æras in the hiſtory of France. The circumſtances of the times, the character of the prince, and of the man, all conſpire to render it intereſting; and his connections with other chriſtian powers, either as allies or enemies, make it an object of general importance. The eyes of all Europe were fixed upon him as the hero of its military theatre, and the centre of its political ſyſtem. Philip and Elizabeth were now but ſecondary actors.

The prejudices entertained againſt Henry's religion, made one half of the royal army forſake him on the aſſaſſination of his predeceſſor. He abandoned the ſiege of Paris, and retired into Normandy. Thither he was followed by the duke of Mayenne, and the forces of the league, who had proclaimed the cardinal of Bourbon king, under the name of Charles X.

In this extremity Henry had recourſe to the queen of England, and found her well diſpoſed to aſſiſt him: ſhe ſent him twenty-two thouſand pounds, and a reinforcement of four thouſand

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men, under the command of lord Willoughby, an officer of abilities.

A. D. 1590.

The king's forces were ſtill much inferior to thoſe of the league; but what was wanting in numbers was made up in valour. He attacked the duke of Mayenne at Ivri, and gained a complete victory over him. Henry's behaviour on this occaſion was truly heroic: "My lads," ſaid he to his ſoldiers, "if you ſhould loſe ſight of "your colours, rally towards this," pointing to the white feather in his hat; "you will always "find it the road to honour and glory. God is "with us," added he, drawing his ſword, and ruſhing into the thickeſt of the enemy; but when he perceived their ranks broken, and great havock committed in the purſuit, his natural humanity led him to cry, "Spare my french ſubjects;" forgetting that they were his enemies.

Soon after this victory died the cardinal of Bourbon; and the king inveſted Paris, which he might have reduced by famine, had not his paternal tenderneſs for his people, perhaps ill-timed, made him forget the duty of a ſoldier, and relax the rigour of war. He left a free paſſage to the old men, women, and children: he permitted the peaſants, and even his own men, to carry proviſions ſecretly to the beſieged: "I would rather "never poſſeſs Paris," ſaid he, "than acquire it "by the deſtruction of its citizens." He feared no reproach ſo much as his own heart.

Meantime

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Meantime the duke of Parma, by order of the king of Spain, left the low countries, and haſtened to the relief of Paris. On his approach Henry raiſed the ſiege, and offered him battle; but that conſummate general, having performed the important ſervice for which he was detached, declined the combat, and marched back to his own government. After the retreat of the ſpaniards, Henry made ſeveral freſh attempts upon Paris; but the vigilance of the faction of ſixteen, by which it was governed, defeated all his deſigns: however, ſome ſuccours from England and Germany put him in a condition to beſiege Rouen; and when he hoped to triumph over it, had the mortification of ſeeing his prey again ſnatched from him by the duke of Parma. The gallant monarch, burning with revenge, again boldly offered him battle; again purſued him; and the duke, by a wonderful piece of generalſhip, and in ſpite of the greateſt obſtacles, a ſecond time made good his retreat to the Netherlands, where he ſoon after died.

Meanwhile all things were haſtening to a criſis between the parties; the king of Spain endeavoured, in vain, to get his daughter Eugenia, acknowledged queen of France; it was propoſed that ſhe ſhould eſpouſe a prince of France, and the young duke of Guiſe was fixed on for her huſband. But the duke of Mayenne, unwilling to become dependent on his nephew, publiſhed a decree, declaring ſuch a treaty was contrary to the

CHAP. L. ſalic law, which being a fundamental principle of the government, could on no account whatſoever be ſet aſide.

In the meantime the catholics of the king's party began to complain of his perſeverance in calviniſm, and the moderate men of that perſuaſion repreſented to him the neceſſity of a change. At laſt he conferred one or two days with his friends, and performed the ceremony of abjuration at St. Denis, in preſence of a multitude of people.

A D. 1593.

Henry, ſoon after his converſion, was received into the capital, where he was on the point of periſhing by the hand of a deſperate aſſaſſin, named John Chatel. When he was interrogated, he alleged he had frequently heard his ghoſtly preceptors, the jeſuits, ſay, the king-killing was lawful. Some libels againſt the king were found among the papers of father Guiſcard, and he ſuffered the puniſhment appointed for treaſon. The jeſuits were baniſhed the kingdom by a decree of the parliament of Paris.

The leaguers having now no pretext for their religion, the league was neceſſarily diſſolved. But the duke of Mayenne, being ſupported by Philip II. ſtill held out that he might obtain advantageous terms. Henry led an army into Burgundy, expelled the ſpaniards from that province, obliged the duke of Mayenne to ſue for an accomodation, and received abſolution from the pope.

We

We ſhall take a rapid ſketch of the events of the war with Spain, that we may at our leiſure contemplate the public happineſs. Calais was taken for the ſpaniards by a french officer in their ſervice, and that conqueſt was followed by the ſurpriſal of Amiens; but Henry heroically recovered that place, obliged the duke of Mercœur, who ſtill held part of Bretagne, to ſubmit, and returned in triumph to Paris. CHAP. L.

But the hugonots at that time gave him almoſt as much uneaſineſs as the enemy. They frequently expreſſed apprehenſions on account of their religion: Henry ſoon made them eaſy on that point. He paſſed the famous edict of Nantz, which granted them every thing they could reaſonably deſire. It not only ſecured to them the free exerciſe of their religion, but a ſhare in the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the privilege of being admitted to all employments of truſt, profit, and honour.

Meantime the king of Spain, weighed down with age and infirmities, grew weary of an unſucceſsful war. Elizabeth, though diſpleaſed with Henry's converſion, continued her aſſiſtance to him, and to the united provinces; and the engliſh navy became every day more formidable. The admiral Effingham, accompanied by the earl of Eſſex, attacked the ſpaniards even in the road of Cadiz; the city was pillaged, and the

CHAP. L.

loſs of the enemy was eſtimated at twenty millions of ducats.

At laſt Philip offered peace to the confederates on pretty equitable terms; but as he refuſed to acknowledge the independency of the united provinces, and Elizabeth to abandon their cauſe, Henry was compelled by the exigency of the ſtate to treat ſeparately. Peace was concluded at Vervins, which put Henry in poſſeſſion of all the conqueſts made by the ſpaniards in Picardy.

But before we take a view of the flouriſhing ſtate of France, under the equitable government of this great and good prince, and the wiſe adminiſtration of Sulli, or of England, during the latter part of the reign of queen Elizabeth, we muſt take a glance at the conteſt between Spain and the united provinces.

CHAP.

CHAP. LI.

Spain, and the Low Countries, from the Peace of Vervins to the Truce in 1609, when the Freedom of the United Provinces was acknowledged.

CHAP. LI.

A. D. 1598.

SOON after the peace concluded between France and Spain, at Vervins, Philip breathed his laſt at Madrid, leaving behind him the character of a dark, jealous, haughty, vindictive, and inexorable tyrant. With great talents for government, he failed to obtain the reputation of a great prince; his head fitted him for the throne of Spain, and his indefatigable application, for the ſovereignty of both Indies; but his heart and his habit of thinking, only for the office of grand inquiſitor. Hence, he was long the terror, but never the admiration of Europe.

The war with Holland ſtill continued. Elizabeth protected thoſe brave republicans, who, for ſo many years reſiſted the ſpaniſh power, and had the glory of procuring an acknowledgment of their independence, which, notwithſtanding their invincible courage, they had not yet been able to obtain. Let us collect the facts, the knowledge of which here becomes neceſſary.

In 1598, Philip II. ceded the Low Countries to his daughter Iſabella, who was married to the archduke

CHAP. LI.

duke Albert, on condition, that in default of heirs, theſe provinces ſhould revert to Spain. Though the dutch had been leſs fond of liberty, yet the dread of again falling under the ſpaniſh yoke was ſufficient to make them redouble their efforts. Their leader Maurice, prince of Orange, maintained the glory of his family. Sieges, battles, and conqueſts were multiplied as before.

No ſiege can be found in modern hiſtory comparable to that of Oſtend, for its length, or the blood that was ſpilt. This place, which held out three years and three months, coſt the ſpaniards fourſcore thouſand men. Ambroſe Spinola, a genoeſe, who glorioufly concluded this ſiege, is a great example of the ſtrength of genius. While his brother Frederick was diſtinguiſhing himſelf in the armies, Ambroſe was engaged in trade, but all at once came to join him, when the former being killed, he ſupplied his place, ſhewing himſelf an able captain, though he had no maſter except books. He was created commander in chief in Flanders, by Philip III. Such is the force of genius! It can, without aſſiſtance, rapidly make its way to glory, to which more aſſiduity leads only by ſlow degrees.

In the heat of this obſtinate war, the dutch never let ſlip an opportunity of puſhing their trade and manufactures. Every nerve was ſtrained in labour, and every talent in ingenuity. Their fleets had already taken the Moluccas; and the

Eaſt

East India Company, the grand bulwark of the republic, was eſtabliſhed. CHAP. LI.

At length, through the mediation of France and England, the dutch liberty was eſtabliſhed on a firm footing, by a truce of twelve years, concluded at the Hague; by which Philip III. acknowledged the united provinces as free and independent ſtates, and obliged himſelf to allow them a free trade in the Indies and America.

Can it be believed that Spain, after ſo many loſſes, ſhould give itſelf a deep and incurable wound, from the ſame perſecuting ſpirit by which it had loſt a great part of its ſubjects? by an inſenſate edict, all the moreſcoes, or deſcendants of the moors, were ordered to leave the monarchy in thirty days. Such were the fruits produced by the zeal of the inquiſitors. Spain loſt near a million of induſtrious inhabitants; and as that kingdom was already depopulated by long and bloody foreign wars, by repeated emigrations to the new world, and enervated by luxury, it now ſunk into a ſtate of langour from which it has never recovered.

CHAP. LII.

The Domeſtic Hiſtory of England, from the Defeat of the Spaniſh Armada, to the Death of Elizabeth; with ſome Particulars of Scotland and Ireland.

CHAP. LII.

THE leading characteriſtics of Elizabeth's adminiſtration were œconomy and vigour. By a ſtrict attention to the firſt, ſhe was enabled to maintain a magnificent court, and to ſupport the perſecuted proteſtants in France and the Low Countries, without oppreſſing her people, or involving the crown in debt; and by a ſpirited exertion of the ſecond, ſhe humbled Spain, and gave ſtability to her throne, in ſpite of all the machinations of her enemies.

Elizabeth's attention was much occupied by the affairs of Ireland, where the engliſh authority had hitherto been little more than nominal. The iriſh princes and nobles, divided among themſelves, readily paid the exterior marks of obedience to a power which they were unable to reſiſt; and as no durable force was ever kept on foot to retain them in ſubjection, they relapſed ſtill into their former ſtate of independence. Other reaſons conſpired to prevent a cordial union. The ſmall army which was maintained

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in Ireland never being regularly paid, the officers were obliged to give the ſoldiers the privilege of free quarters upon the natives. Rapine and inſolence inflamed the hatred which prevailed between the conquerors and the conquered; and that, together with the old oppoſition of manners, laws, and intereſts, was now heightened by religious animoſities, the iriſh being ſtill catholics. CHAP. LII.

The romantic and impolitic project of the engliſh princes to ſubdue France, occaſioned this inattention to the affairs of Ireland; a country, which has ſince proved to be the brighteſt jewel in the engliſh crown. Elizabeth early ſaw its importance, and employed ſeveral expedients for reducing it to a ſtate of greater order and ſubmiſſion.

Hugh O'Nial, earl of Tyrone, preferring the pride of independence to every other conſideration, took up arms, and defeated the engliſh under Sir Henry Bagnal, who was left dead on the field, together with fifteen hundred men.

This victory, which mightily animated the iriſh, and raiſed the reputation of Tyrone, made Elizabeth ſenſible of the neceſſity of puſhing the war by more vigorous meaſures. She therefore ſent over to Ireland, her reigning favourite, the earl of Eſſex, at the head of an army of ſeventeen thouſand men. But Eſſex, unacquainted with

CHAP. LII.

with the country, miſcarried in the enterpriſe, diſappointed the expectations of the queen and the nation; and, laſtly, embraced the raſh reſolution of returning home, expreſsly contrary to his ſovereign's orders. Upon this, Elizabeth ordered him to be confined, and deprived of all his employments; yet it is not to be queſtioned, but ſhe would have pardoned him, had he prudently waited her pleaſure; inſtead of which, his haſty impetuous temper, irritated by deſpair, plunged him into a conſpiracy and rebellion.

He was ſeized, and, after a ſhort trial, beheaded in 1601. Yet, notwithſtanding his offences, he had ſtill continued to be the object of Elizabeth's affection. No ſooner was the fatal blow ſtruck than ſhe repented; ſhe became ſenſible ſhe had been deceived by his enemies, and lamented her raſhneſs, in ſacrificing a man on whoſe life her happineſs depended. The remainder of her life ſhe languiſhed in deep melancholy, either cauſed by the death of Eſſex, or the vexation of ſeeing the attention and homage of the courtiers directed to James VI. king of Scotland, the preſumptive heir to her crown.

A. D. 1603. This illuſtrious princeſs, whoſe private life furniſhes matter of cenſure, but who always governed like a great monarch, died in the ſeventieth year of her age.

The character of Elizabeth has been too often drawn to admit of any new feature; and is beſt deli-

delineated in her conduct. She would have enjoyed an unblemiſhed fame, had ſhe not ſullied a reign, in other reſpects ſo glorious, by the murder of the queen of Scotland. CHAP. LII.

CHAP.

CHAP. LIII.

France, from the Peace of Vervins, to the Death of Henry IV.

CHAP. LIII.

HOWEVER capable Henry was of ſeeing what was right, and governing properly by himſelf, yet he ſtood in need of an able and upright miniſter, on whom he might devolve the more ordinary cares of adminiſtration. Such an aſſiſtant he found in his favourite, the marquis of Roſini; whom he created duke of Sulli, in order to give more weight to his authority.

Sulli's firſt care was the finances; and it is inconceivable in how little time he drew the moſt exact order out of that chaos in which they had been involved by his predeceſſors. He reduced all the expences of government; and took care, that the king ſhould always have ſuch a reſerve, as not to be obliged, on any emergency, either to lay new impoſitions on his people, or to make uſe of credit. By theſe prudent meaſures, he paid, in the ſpace of five years, all the debts of the crown, augmented the revenue four millions of livres, had four millions in the treaſury, and had conſiderably diminiſhed the taxes.

Senſible that a fertile country, well cultivated, is the principal ſource of the happineſs of a peo-

ple

ple, and the moſt ſolid foundation of national proſperity, he gave great encouragement to agriculture. He alſo, by the deſire of Henry, eſtabliſhed the culture and manufacture of ſilk; and the ſucceſs was anſwerable to the king's expectations.

A heart, too ſuſceptible of tender impreſſions, was continually involving Henry in new amours, deſtructive at once of his domeſtic peace and of public tranquility. Scarce had death relieved him from the importunities of Gabriel d'Eſtrees, than he gave a promiſe of marriage to Henrietta d'Eſtragues, though not yet divorced from Margaret of Valois, his firſt queen. He ſhewed the obligation to Sulli, when ready to be delivered; and that faithful ſervant, tranſported with zeal for his maſter's honour, tore it in pieces. "I "believe you are turned fool," ſaid Henry. "I "know it," replied Sulli; "and wiſh I was the "only fool in France."

Sulli now thought himſelf out of favour for ever; and remained in that opinion, when the king ſurpriſed him, by adding to his former employments that of maſter of the ordnance. The ſentence of divorce, which Henry had been long ſoliciting at Rome, was procured; and he married, in order to pleaſe his ſubjects, Mary of Medicis, niece to the great duke of Tuſcany. But this ſtep did not put an end to his amours, which continued to embroil him perpetually, either

CHAP. LIII.

with the queen, or his miſtreſs, created marchioneſs of Verneuil.

But Henry's moſt alarming troubles proceeded from the intrigues of the court of Spain. By theſe, the duke of Savoy was encouraged to maintain war againſt him; and after that prince was humbled, the duke of Biron was drawn into a conſpiracy, which coſt him his head.

Theſe continued attempts to diſturb the peace of the kingdom, made Henry reſolve to carry into execution a deſign, which he had long formed, of humbling the houſe of Auſtria, and circumſcribing its power in Italy and Germany.

He had already taken all his meaſures, when the emperor, Rodolphus II. furniſhed him with a reaſon for commencing the war, by ſequeſtrating the duchies of Juliers and Cleves, after the death of the late duke. The proteſtants of Germany, the pope, the venetians, the duke of Savoy, and the Swiſs, entered into Henry's views, and took part in the alliance. Never was any enterpriſe better concerted. Sulli had laid up forty millions of livres in the treaſury, which were deſtined for this war; and the king was ready to march into Germany at the head of forty thouſand excellent troops, when he was aſſaſſined by Ravillac, a deſperate fanatic, who had long formed a deſign to murder him; taking advantage of the opportunity of his carriage being entangled in the

A. D. 1610.

ſtreet,

ſtreet, he ſtabbed him in the midſt of ſeven courtiers who were in the coach. CHAP. LIII.

Thus periſhed Henry IV. one of the greateſt and beſt princes that ever ſat upon the throne of France; and with him periſhed all his great deſigns. A more melancholy reflection cannot enter the human mind, than is ſuggeſted by this untimely event; that a wretch unworthy of exiſtence, and incapable of one meritorious action, ſhould be able to overturn the moſt illuſtrious enterpriſes, and to terminate a life neceſſary to the welfare of millions.

CHAP. LIV.

A general View of the Continent of Europe, from the Aſſaſſination of Henry IV. to the Treaty of Prague.

CHAP. LIV.

THE greater part of the european continent, during the period that followed the death of Henry IV. was a ſcene of anarchy, rebellion, and bloodſhed. Germany continued, for many years, involved in thoſe diſputes which he was preparing to ſettle. Religious controverſies, which almoſt always mingle themſelves with civil affairs, diſtracted the United Provinces, and robbed them of that valuable tranquility which they had ſo gallantly earned by their valour and perſeverance; and France, under the minority of Lewis XIII. and the weak regency of his mother, Mary of Medicis, returned to that ſtate of diſorder and wretchedneſs out of which it had been raiſed by the mild and equitable, but vigorous, government of Henry the Great.

The emperor Rodolphus II. died, and was ſucceeded by his brother Matthias; who finding himſelf advancing in years, and declining in health, he procured, in order to ſtrengthen his authority, his couſin, Ferdinand de Gratz, duke of Stiria, whom he intended as his ſucceſſor in the empire, to be elected king of Bohemia, and acknow-

acknowledged in Hungary, neither himſelf nor his brothers having any children; and he engaged the ſpaniſh branch of the houſe of Auſtria, to renounce all pretentions which it could poſſibly have to thoſe crowns. CHAP. LIV.

The family compact alarmed the proteſtant or evangelic union, as it was called, and occaſioned the hungarians and bohemians to revolt. The confederates were headed by the count de la Tour, a man of abilities, and ſupported by an army of german proteſtants, under the famous count Mansfeldt. Thus was kindled a furious civil war, which deſolated Germany during thirty years, intereſted all the powers of Europe, and was not finally extinguiſhed till the peace of Weſtphalia. A. D. 1618.

In the midſt of theſe diſorders died the emperor Matthias, without being able to foreſee the event of the ſtruggle, or who ſhould be his ſucceſſor. The imperial dignity, however, went according to his deſtination. Ferdinand de Gratz was raiſed to the vacant throne, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of the elector Palatine, and the ſtates of Bohemia.

The election of Ferdinand II. inſtead of intimidating, confirmed the reſolution of the bohemians: they formally depoſed him from the ſovereignty, and choſe Frederick V. elector Palatine, for their king. Frederick, ſeduced by his flatterers, accepted the crown, notwithſtanding

CHAP. LIV.

the remonſtrances of James I. of England, his father-in-law, who uſed all his intereſt in perſuading him to reject it, and proteſted that he would give him no aſſiſtance in ſuch a raſh undertaking.

Frederick, who was ſupported by all the proteſtant princes, except the elector of Saxony, loſt the battle of Prague, in 1620, and was obliged to ſave himſelf by flight. The Palatine, and his adherents, were put under the ban of the empire; and count Tilli, the imperial general, bore down all oppoſition.

While the houſe of Auſtria was thus extending its authority in Germany, a project, no leſs ambitious than bloody, was concerted, for rendering the ſpaniſh branch of that family abſolute in Italy. The duke of Oſſuna, viceroy of Naples, the marquis of Villa Franca, governor of the Milaneſe, and the marquis of Bedmar, the ſpaniſh ambaſſador at Venice, formed a ſcheme for ſubjecting the venetians, and with them the reſt of Italy; for this purpoſe they had formed a horrid conſpiracy which would infallibly have

A. D. 1618.

put them in poſſeſſion of Venice. That city was to have been ſet on fire, in different parts, by a band of ruffians already lodged within its walls, while a body of troops, ſent from the Milaneſe, ſhould attack on one ſide, and ſome armed veſſels from Naples, on the other. But this famous plot was diſcovered by the vigilance of the ſenate,

when

when it was almoſt ripe for execution. The greater part of the conſpirators were privately drowned; and Bedmar, who had violated the law of nations, being ſecretly conducted out of the city, was glad to make his eſcape. CHAP. LIV.

Meanwhile Philip III. died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Philip IV. a prince of a much more enterpriſing diſpoſition than his father; and the abilities of Olivarez, the new miniſter, was infinitely ſuperior to thoſe of the duke of Lerma, who had governed during the greater part of the former reign. The ambition of Olivarez was yet more extenſive than his capacity. He hoped to raiſe the houſe of Auſtria to that abſolute dominion, in Europe, for which it had been ſo long ſtruggling. Nor was this project ſo chimerical as it may at firſt ſight appear. The emperor had already broken the proteſtant league; France was diſtracted by civil wars; and England was amuſed by a marriage treaty between the prince of Wales and the infanta, which more than every other motive, actually prevented James from taking any material ſtep in favour of the Palatine, till he was ſtript of his dominions. But France, notwithſtanding her inteſtine commotions, was not loſt to all ſenſe of danger from abroad; and the match with the infanta being broke off by a quarrel between Buckingham, James's miniſter, and Olivarez, an alliance was entered into between France and England, in conjunction with

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the United Provinces, for reſtraining the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria.

After the truce in 1609, the united provinces became a prey to religious diviſions. The gomariſts and arminians divided the republic: the former were headed by prince Maurice, and the latter by the penſionary Barneveldt, a firm patriot. But prince Maurice and the gomariſts at laſt prevailed. The arminian preachers were baniſhed, and Barneveldt was brought to the block.

In France, during this period, both civil and religious diſputes were carried much higher than in Holland. Lewis XIII. being only nine years of age when his father, Henry IV. was murdered, Mary of Medicis, the queen's mother, was choſen regent. This princeſs was entirely guided by her italian favourites, Concini, and his wife Galigai.

The nobility, diſſatisfied with the meaſures of the court, and with the favour ſhewn to foreigners, revolted. The prince of Condè headed the malcontents: troubles, civil wars, diſorders, and misfortunes rapidly trod on the heels of each other.

Meantime Concini received a blow from a quarter whence he little expected it. Albert Luines, who had at firſt recommended himſelf to the king's favour by rearing and training birds for the king's amuſement, found means to make

make him jealous of his authority. Orders were therefore given to arreſt Concini; and Vitri, captain of the guards, to whom the ſervice was entruſted, executed it entirely to the wiſhes of Luines: that is, Concini was ſhot, under pretence of reſiſtance. Galigai, his widow, being accuſed of ſorcery and magic, was condemned by the parliament of Paris to ſuffer death. When aſked what ſpell ſhe made uſe of to faſcinate the queen mother? ſhe replied, "*The aſcendency which a ſuperior genius has over a weak mind.*" The queen mother was exiled to Blois, where ſhe entered into a plot with the duke d'Eſpernon, and made her eſcape with a deſign to begin a civil war; but matters were acommodated with her and the duke, by making them ſome advantageous conceſſions. A new quarrel broke out, and was followed by a new accommodation.

CHAP. LIV.

A. D. 1617.

Theſe negociations, on the part of the queen mother, had been chiefly conducted by Richelieu, biſhop of Lucon. He had been diſgraced with his miſtreſs, and with her returned into favour, as well as conſequence. At her ſolicitations he obtained a cardinal's hat, a ſeat in the council, and ſoon after a ſhare in the adminiſtration; but hypocriſy was neceſſary to conceal for a time, from envy and jealouſy, thoſe tranſcendent abilities which were one day to aſtoniſh Europe.

In

CHAP. LIV. In the meantime a new civil war was kindled, more violent than thoſe of the former. Lewis XIII. had offended the proteſtants, by an attempt to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in the province of Bern, where there were no catholics. The hugonots, every where alarmed, aſſembled at Rochelle, determined to throw off the royal authority, and erect a republic on the model of the dutch.

A. D. 1621. The conſtable, Luines, equally ignorant and preſumptuous, imagining that he could cruſh this formidable party, undertook the war; and Lewis, in perſon, ſat down before Montauban; but had the mortification of being obliged to raiſe the ſiege. Two great captains, the duke of Rohan, and his brother Soubiſe, were at the head of the proteſtants. Luines died ſoon after this diſgraceful expedition; and the brave and ambitious Leſdigueres abjured calviniſm to gain the conſtable's ſword. Peace was at laſt concluded with the proteſtants, who obtained a confirmation of the edict of Nantz.

The french councils now began to aſſume more vigour. Cardinal Richelieu no ſooner got a ſhare in the adminiſtration, which in a ſhort time he entirely governed, than turning his eyes on the ſtate of Europe, he formed three mighty projects: to ſubdue the turbulent ſpirit of the french nobility; to reduce the rebellious hugonots; and to cruſh the encreaſing power of the houſe

houſe of Auſtria. But, in order to carry theſe great deſigns into execution, it was neceſſary to preſerve peace with England. This Richelieu perceived, and accordingly negociated a treaty of marriage between Charles, prince of Wales, and Henrietta of France, ſiſter of Lewis XIII. But Richelieu could not immediately carry his projects into execution; a powerful faction at court oppoſed him in every meaſure. Gaſton, duke of Orleans, the king's brother, was his mortal enemy; the queen mother herſelf, was become jealous of him; and Lewis was more attached to him through fear than affection. But the bold and ambitious ſpirit of Richelieu triumphed over every obſtacle; it diſcovered and diſſipated all the cabals and conſpiracies formed againſt him, and at length made himſelf abſolute maſter of the king and kingdom. CHAP. LIV. A. D. 1624.

During theſe cabals in the french court, the hugonots ſhewed, once more, a diſpoſition to render themſelves independent; and in that ſpirit they were encouraged by the court of England. The reaſon aſſigned by ſome hiſtorians for this ſtep is very ſingular. The duke of Buckingham, when employed to bring over the princeſs Henrietta, had fallen in love with the queen of France. The return that he met with, how trivial ſoever, encouraged him to project a new embaſſy to that court; but Richelieu, reported to have been his rival in love, as well as in ſway, made

CHAP. LIV.

made Lewis ſend him a meſſage that he muſt not think of ſuch a journey. Buckingham ſwore that "he would ſee the queen in ſpite of all "the power of France;" and accordingly determined Charles in favour of the hugonots. Thus do ridiculous caprices become the ſpring which ſets governments in motion, and a wrong choice expoſes princes to irreparable misfortunes.

Richelieu then executed one of the moſt glorious enterpriſes in his miniſtry. He attacked Rochelle, the bulwark of the hugonots, ſhut up the port againſt the engliſh, by a dyke, which was amazingly conſtructed in the ſea, and commanded the troops in perſon, with all the valour and ſkill of an experienced general. In vain did the mayor, Guiton, ſhewing a dagger, and laying it upon the council table, declare, that with that dagger he would ſtab the firſt who ſpoke a word of ſurrendering. In vain did the two dutcheſſes of Rohan animate the courage of the beſieged by their example. Buckingham, who was on the point of ſetting ſail with a new fleet, having been aſſaſſinated, the engliſh arrived too late, and were repulſed before the dyke. After eleven months reſiſtance, the inhabitants of Rochelle, exhauſted by all the horrors of famine and war, were conſtrained to ſubmit. They loſt their privileges; their fortifications were deſtroyed;

A. D. 1628.

deſtroyed; but they were left in poſſeſſion of their property, and liberty of conſcience. CHAP. LIV.

From this æra we may date the aggrandiſement of France; ſhe now began to take the lead in the affairs of Europe, and her independent nobles to ſink into the condition of ſervants of the court.

Ferdinand II. whom you have ſeen triumphant over the palatine and evangelical union, continued to carry every thing before him in the empire. He now thought the time was come for realizing that idea which he had long revolved, of reducing the electoral princes to the condition of grandees of Spain; and the biſhops, to the ſtate of imperial chaplains. Senſible, however, of the danger of alarming both religions at once, he reſolved to begin with the proteſtants: and accordingly iſſued an edict, ordering them to reſtore, without loſs of time, all the benefices and church lands which they had held ſince the peace of Paſſau. The proteſtants, in order to ſave themſelves from that robbery with which they were threatened, and which was already begun in many places, ſecretly concluded a treaty with Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. But before we introduce this deliverer of Germany, let us caſt an eye on the northern kingdoms, which had no concern with the general ſyſtem of Europe, and ſcarce offered any thing A. D. 1630.

CHAP. LIV.

thing intereſting from the death of Guſtavus Vaſa.

Eric Vaſa, the ſon of Guſtavus, being a diſſolute prince, was dethroned by the ſtates of Sweden, in 1568. He was ſucceeded by his brother John; who, after attempting in vain to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion, died in 1592, leaving the crown to his ſon Sigiſmund, already elected king of Poland. Sigiſmund, like his father, being a zealous catholic, and the ſwedes no leſs zealous lutherans, they depoſed him in the year 1600, and raiſed to the throne his uncle Charles IX. The poles attempted in vain to reſtore Sigiſmund. Charles ſwayed the ſceptre till his death; and was ſucceeded in 1611 by his ſon, the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus.

Ruſſia, during that period, was a prey to civil wars. John Baſilovitz, dying in 1584, left two ſons, Theodore and Demetrius. Theodore, at the inſtigation of Boris, his prime miniſter, ordered his brother Demetrius to be murdered. He himſelf died ſoon after; and Boris was proclaimed king. Meanwhile a young man appeared in Lithuania, under the name and character of Demetrius, pretending that he had eſcaped out of the hands of the aſſaſſin. Aſſiſted by a poliſh army, he entered Moſcow in 1605, and was proclaimed czar without oppoſition; but the impoſture being diſcovered, he was put to death.

Three

Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up, one after another. CHAP. LIV.

Denmark affords nothing deſerving our attention during the reign of Frederick II. nor during the reign of his ſon Chriſtian IV. who was choſen general of the proteſtant league in Germany; but his tranſactions, while veſted with that command, are too unimportant to merit a particular detail.

Sweden alone, during thoſe ages, of all the northern kingdoms, yields a ſpectacle worthy of obſervation. No ſooner was Guſtavus ſeated on the throne, though only eighteen years of age, than he ſignalized himſelf againſt the danes, the pruſſians, and the poles. An advantageous truce gave him leiſure to take part in the troubles of Germany, and to exhibit more fully thoſe heroic qualities which will ever be the admiration of mankind.

The tranquility of Europe, the liberty of Germany, the intereſt of the proteſtant religion, all contributed to furniſh reaſons or pretences for Guſtavus to turn his arms towards Ferdinand. Fewer motives were ſufficient to inflame the heart of a hero.

Luckily his political talents were equal to his courage. He negociated alliances with all powers. Charles I. ſent him ſix thouſand men; and Richlieu concluded a treaty with him, by which Guſtavus obliged himſelf to keep up an army of thirty- A. D. 1631.

CHAP. LIV.

thirty-ſix thouſand men, for which he was to receive an annual ſubſidy of twelve hundred thouſand livres.

Guſtavus had entered Pomerania when this treaty was concluded, made himſelf maſter of Frankfort, Colberg, and ſeveral other places. He attacked the imperialiſts before Leipſic, headed by count Tilli, and totally defeated them. This famous general was killed ſoon after in diſputing with the ſwedes the paſſage of the Lock. Walſtein ſtill remained to the emperor: this renowned warrior repulſed Guſtavus, who attacked him in his intrenchments near Nuremberg; recovered Bohemia, and invaded Saxony, where he took Leipſic. The king of Sweden flew to the

A. D. 1632.

aſſiſtance of the elector; but the battle of Lutzen put an end to the career of the great Guſtavus: he fell in the middle of a complete victory, which was finiſhed by Bernard, duke of Saxe Weimar, his lieutenant general. No prince, ancient or modern, ſeems to have poſſeſſed in ſo eminent a degree as Guſtavus, the united qualities of the hero, the ſtateſman, and commander; that intuitive genius which conceives, that wiſdom which plans, and that combination and courage which gives ſucceſs to an enterpriſe. He was ſucceeded by his daughter Chriſtiana, then only ſix years of age; and the government was managed by the chancellor Oxenſtiern.

The

The emperor become jealous of the great powers which he had granted to Walſtein, whoſe inſolence knew no bounds, deprived him of the command; upon which that general entered into a conſpiracy, when the emperor cauſed him to be aſſaſſinated, and gave the command to the archduke Ferdinand. CHAP. LIV.

Meantime the ſwedes felt the viciſſitudes of war. The imperialiſts having beſieged Nordlinguen in Suabia, Weimar came to the aſſiſtance of the place; and attacking the beſiegers, who were greatly ſuperior in number, loſt the battle, with about ſixteen thouſand men. A. D. 1634.

This defeat threw the proteſtants into the utmoſt conſternation and deſpair. The elector of Saxony went over to the emperor; and the following treaty with the court of Vienna was at length ſigned at Prague by all the proteſtant princes, except the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel: A. D. 1635.

"The proteſtants, ſhall retain, for the ſpace of "forty years longer, the benefices which they had "enjoyed ſince 1552. The exerciſe of the pro-"teſtant religion ſhall be freely permitted in all "the dominions of the empire, except the king-"dom of Bohemia, and the provinces belong-"ing to the houſe of Auſtria; that the duke of "Bavaria ſhall be maintained in the poſſeſſion of "the palatinate, and that the empire ſhould raiſe "an army to drive out the ſwedes and french."

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In conſequence of this pacification, almoſt the whole weight of the war fell upon the ſwedes and french, with whom Oxenſtiern had concluded a freſh treaty; and a french army marched into Germany, in order to ſupport the duke of Saxe Weimar. But the ſucceſs of theſe new hoſtilities muſt be the ſubject of a future chapter.

CHAP. LV.

A View of Europe, from the Treaty of Prague in 1635, *to the Peace of Weſtphalia in* 1648.

CHAP. LV.

CARDINAL RICHELIEU, though involved in troubles, and ſurrounded by conſpiracies, reſolved upon an open war againſt the whole houſe of Auſtria; a hazardous undertaking, but well calculated for ſecuring him in his ſtation. He made himſelf neceſſary, by multiplying the difficulties of government. Beſides, the glory of the ſtate was connected with the intereſt of the miniſter, provided reſources could be found equal to the greatneſs of the deſign.

Richelieu concluded an alliance with Holland, in hopes of ſharing the low countries; and he ſent a herald to Bruſſels, in the name of his maſter, to declare war againſt Spain. A treaty was at the ſame time entered into with the duke of Savoy, in order to ſtrengthen the french intereſt in Italy.

But none of theſe events, however, anſwered the political views with which they were framed. The ſpaniards overrun Picardy, and the count of Galas, the imperial general, and the duke of Lorraine, ravaged Burgundy; but by the vigorous meaſures of Richelieu, fifty thouſand men were ſuddenly aſſembled, and the ſpaniards and flemings

CHAP. LV.

mings found themſelves obliged to evacuate the kingdom.

During theſe tranſactions, Ferdinand II. died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. whoſe acceſſion made no alteration in the ſtate of the war. Though the ſwediſh army, under the command of Bannier, had gained a glorious victory at Wiſtock, they found themſelves cloſely preſſed by general Galas. Weimar loſt a battle, in which the duke of Rohan was killed by his ſide; but he afterwards gained eight ſucceſſive victories in 1638. The deciſive battle of Rheinfeld, put into his hands the two imperial generals, Savelli, and the famous John de Werth.—Weimar died the next year, while his whole thoughts were taken up with his vaſt deſigns.

A. D. 1640. The ſwedes retook Pomerania, which they had loſt; advanced as far as Prague, and fell upon Sileſia. Germany was deluged with blood, and overrun with hideous ruin; every day its wounds bled a freſh.

The houſe of Auſtria was not more fortunate in other quarters. Catalonia revolted, and Portugal threw off the ſpaniſh yoke. The catalans were deſirous of forming a republic; but being too weak to reſiſt the forces of Philip IV. gave themſelves up to France.

The portugueſe were more ſucceſsful in their ſtruggle for independency. An impenetrable conſpiracy had been formed for upwards of three years,

years, in favour of the duke of Braganza, whoſe grandfather had been unjuſtly deprived of his right to the crown by Philip II. The conſpirators effected their deſign, almoſt without the loſs of blood: the ſpaniſh governor and his ſecretary were the only victims ſacrificed to public vengeance. The duke of Braganza was proclaimed king, under the name of John IV. the ſpaniards diſappeared, and Portugal only changed its maſter. CHAP. LV. A. D. 1640.

Philip, ſunk in a diſgraceful lethargy, was entirely ignorant of this ſtrange piece of news, while it echoed through every corner of Europe; but at laſt there was a neceſſity to acquaint him with the truth. "Sire," ſaid Olivarez, "the duke of "Braganza has been unwiſe enough to cauſe him-"ſelf to be elected king of Portugal; you will "gain by it a confiſcation of all his eſtates. Let "order be taken for it," replied Philip, and continued his amuſements.

Meantime Bannier died after an unſucceſsful attempt againſt Ratiſbon. Torſtenſon, the worthy ſucceſſor of ſo eminent a general, met with the greateſt ſucceſs from the time that he was put at the head of the army in 1642. He took Leipſic, after cutting in pieces the imperial and ſaxon troops.

The death of cardinal Richelieu, and ſoon afterwards his maſter Lewis XIII. gave great alarm to the ſwedes: they were doubtful of the politics of the new adminiſtration; and began to think of A. D. 1643.

CHAP. LV.

concluding a ſeparate treaty with the emperor; but their fears were ſoon removed by the ſteady meaſures of cardinal Mazarine, who ſhewed himſelf no unworthy ſucceſſor of Richlieu, whoſe plan he purſued, and who made up by addreſs what he wanted in genius.

About this time a young hero ſprung up to do honour to France during the minority of Lewis XIV. who was only four years old at the death of his father. This was the celebrated duke d'Enguien, afterwards honoured with the title of the Great Condè, who in the plains of Rocroi, cut to pieces the famous walloon and caſtalian infantry, with an inferior army, and took Thionville. He next joined the famous Turenne with a reinforcement on the Rhine; and theſe two generals attacked the count de Merci near Friburg, with ſuch impetuoſity, that notwithſtanding his advantageous ſituation, he was obliged to retire with conſiderable loſs.

While Condè was enjoying his glory in Paris,

A. D. 1645.

Turenne, who commanded the army in Germany, was defeated at Mariendahl by the count de Merci. On this news Condè ſet out, joined Turenne, attacked Merci near Nordlingen, and gained a third victory as glorious as the preceding. The illuſtrious Merci fell, covered with honour.

The prince then marched to take Dunkirk from

A. D. 1469.

the ſpaniards, but was ſent into Catalonia, where he miſcarried at the ſiege of Lerida: however, the

the following year he retrieved his credit by the battle of Lens, which he gained over the emperor's brother, the archduke Leopold. CHAP. LV.

Ferdinand III. wearied out with ſo many ſhocks, was at length obliged to conclude the peace of Weſtphalia. By this famous treaty, the french and ſwedes gave laws to Germany. The diſputes between the emperors and the princes of the empire, which had laſted for above ſeven hundred years, was at length happily terminated.

The war, however, between France and Spain, continued with various ſucceſs till the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1660.

CHAP. LVI.

England and Ireland during the Reign of James I.

CHAP. LVI.

THE engliſh throne being left vacant by the death of Elizabeth, James of Scotland, was im-

A D. 1603. mediately proclaimed king by the lords and privy council. He was great grandſon of Margaret, eldeſt daughter of Henry VII. The crown of England, therefore, paſſed from the family of Tudor, to that of Stuart, with as much tranquility as ever it was tranſmitted from father to ſon.

James I. was learned with pedantry, a theologiſt with bigotry, and pacific from weakneſs of character, a ſlave to favourites unworthy of his countenance; yet extremely jealous of his authority, which he looked upon as a right inherent to the crown. Being an infant when his mother, Mary Stuart, was dethroned, he had been educated in the proteſtant religion: and ſome of the engliſh catholics, enraged at not finding in him the indulgence with which they had flattered

A. D. 1605. themſelves, formed the third year after his acceſſion, one of the moſt diabolical plots, recorded in the hiſtory of mankind. The event to which I allude is the gunpowder treaſon.

Thirty-ſix barrels of gun-powder were concealed under the parliament houſe, to bury, in one grave, the king, the royal family, the peers

of

of the realm, and the commons. Lord Mount- CHAP. LVI.
eagle having luckily received a billet, warning him to abſent himſelf from the meeting, becauſe they would receive a *terrible blow*, communicated the information to James, who, alone, unriddled the ſecret. The greateſt part of the conſpirators died, with their arms in their hands.

After eſcaping this danger, James, notwithſtanding the natural indolence of his temper, thought it neceſſary to attend to the diſordered ſtate of Ireland.

The arms of Elizabeth, in Ireland, under the conduct of lord Mountjoy, had borne down all reſiſtance; but, on the death of the queen, and acceſſion of James, the natives, in ſeveral parts, diſcovered a reſolution not to ſubmit to the injunctions of government, with reſpect to religion. To be forced from their altars, to be ſtript of their poſſeſſions, and to be haraſſed by penal laws, for not violating the dictates of their conſcience, appeared to them very injurious treatment.

Sir Cahir O'Dogherty, a powerful chief in Ulſter, conſidering the preſent opportunity to be favourable, determined to expel the deſpoilers of his native land, and recover to his countrymen their long loſt privileges. With this view, he aſſembled his followers, ſtormed the fort of Culmore, and put the garriſon to the ſword. He next proceeded to Derry, which he alſo took, and burned

CHAP. LVI.

burned to the ground. However, not being well ſeconded by his countrymen, he was defeated, and ſlain by Sir Arthur Chicheſter, who acted as deputy to lord Mountjoy. In reward for this piece of ſervice, his majeſty granted him the territory of Iniſhowen, which belonged to O'Dogherty, a ſcope of land of great extent.

Meaſures were now taken to eſtabliſh the public tranquility, and prevent inſurrections. A proclamaton of oblivion and indemnity was publiſhed by his majeſty. Circuits were eſtabliſhed, juſtice adminiſtered, oppreſſion baniſhed, and crimes and diſorders of every kind ſeverely puniſhed. Every hope of recovering their independence being extinguiſhed, the people, in general, ſurrendered their lands, and received them back as engliſh tenure.

James endeavoured, but without effect, to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy among the preſbyterians of Scotland. He juſtly looked upon biſhops as the ſupporters of the royal authority, and openly ſaid, "No biſhop, no king." But theſe fanatics, breathing the love of independence, drew from thence a new motive to reſiſt him; he never could convince, nor reduce them. The engliſh puritans, animated by the ſame ſpirit in the ſucceeding reign, deſtroyed the crown.

The imprudent conduct of James paved the way for that fatal revolution. By perpetually inſiſting upon the maxims of arbitrary power, which

which the Tudors had followed without oppo- CHAP. LVI.
ſition, he gave birth to republican ideas. The people reaſoned on authority, diſcuſſed its principles, inveſtigated its ſource, went back to the times when it was confined within very narrow limits, drew from hiſtory and antient literature ſentiments of liberty, which conjunctures would neceſſarily diſcloſe, and thought they had a right to ſtruggle againſt prerogative. The parliament of 1610 made bold attempts in this way, and was diſſolved with indignation. A. D. 1615.

Robert Carr, earl of Somerſet, his minion and miniſter, was at that time ſupplanted by another favourite. This was George Villiers, who was at once created duke of Buckingham, maſter of the horſe, and high admiral. The king, in order to raiſe money to ſupply the neceſſities of his new favourite, reſtored to the dutch, for a trifling ſum, Brille, Fluſhing, and Rammekins, three important places, which had been put into the hands of Elizabeth, as pledges for the money ſhe had lent to the republic. He alſo raiſed two hundred thouſand pounds by the titles of baronet.

James had formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the palatinate for his ſon-in-law; and to this ſyſtem he ſacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the

CHAP. LVI.

the ſpaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. He alſo negociated a marriage between his ſon, Charles, and the infanta of Spain. Young Charles, impatient of delays, by the advice of Buckingham, and accompanied by that raſh favourite, had executed the romantic project of going to pay his court to that princeſs in perſon. To make this adventure complete, the duke of Buckingham, who had fallen in love with the ducheſs of Olivarez, affronted the duke her huſband, who was prime miniſter, broke off the match with the infanta, and brought the prince of Wales back again to England as ſuddenly as he had taken him away. He immediately ſet on foot a treaty of marriage between Charles and the princeſs Henrietta, of France, and ſucceeded in his negociation.

A. D. 1623.

A. D. 1625.

James did not live, however, to ſee the celebration of the nuptials. He died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years.

CHAP.

CHAP. LVII.

England, from the Acceſſion of Charles I. to the final Abolition of the Monarchy.

CHAP. LVII.

A. D. 1625.

WE now come to a remarkable æra in the engliſh hiſtory, when liberty ſtruck deep roots; when not only the uſurpations, but the juſt prerogatives of the crown, were diſputed and wreſted from it. Horrid ſcenes of violence ſerved as a prelude to the harmony of a legal conſtitution. The whole government ſeemed not only thrown into confuſion, but annihilated; yet order ſprung from this chaos.

When James I. imprudently advanced in the maxim of abſolute authority, without having the ſtrength neceſſary to ſupport it, he only irritated the people, excited men of warm tempers to fatal diſputes, and expoſed the crown to the attacks of the parliament. Men's minds were ſet to work: they acquired new lights, and knowledge ſufficient to diſcern that the royal prerogative had its limits; but they were too much heated not to overleap thoſe of the national liberty. From the ſhock of thoſe different intereſts, from thoſe overſtrained opinions, neceſſarily iſſued devouring flames.

Charles

CHAP. LVII.

Charles I. though endowed with all the qualities of an amiable and virtuous prince, yet from his deſire to put in practice the principles of his father, which were not conteſted under the Tudors, plunged from one abyſs to another. So early as the ſecond year of his reign, the commons ventured to impeach Buckingham, the favourite miniſter. Charles forbid the impeachment, and demanded a ſpeedy ſubſidy; giving them to underſtand, that in caſe of refuſal, he could very eaſily aboliſh parliaments, as had been done by ſo many other monarchs.

This indiſcreet threat was ſuddenly followed by a ſtroke of arbitrary power. Two members of parliament were put in priſon; but the commons refuſed to deliberate till they ſhould be enlarged. Scarce was that done, when the diſputes againſt the rights of the crown were renewed. The parliament was diſſolved, and taxes were levied by force; the murmurs encreaſed, and the royal authority was more weakened; the neceſſary conſequence of a falſe ſyſtem, which makes men advance with obſtinacy, and recede with timidity.

The war undertaken againſt France, in favour of the inhabitants of Rochelle, made it neceſſary to convoke a new parliament, where the ſame cauſes produced the ſame effects. The famous *petition of rights*, was drawn up by the lower houſe, requiring, that no perſon may be forced

A. D. 1628.

to

to any gift, loan, benevolence, or tax, without the conſent of parliament; that no perſon may be ſued, impriſoned, or moleſted, in caſe of refuſal. In a word, that no denizen may be arreſted or detained by order of the king. In vain did the peers endeavour to make ſome modifications in this bill. The commons were untractable, and the king gave way, in order to obtain ſupplies.

Buckingham's murder did not put an end to the fermentation; it was even more heated by the taking of Rochelle. Charles now diſſolved this turbulent aſſembly, and made peace with France and Spain, that he might not have occaſion any longer for money. At the ſame time he choſe an excellent miniſter in Wentworth, earl of Strafford, formerly a zealous defender of liberty in the houſe of commons.

All the king's œconomy could not ſupply the want of ſubſidies. It was neceſſary to have recourſe to old expedients. To the duty of tonnage and poundage, and the ordinary methods of prerogatives, was added a tax for the ſhipping. Hampden, a ſpirited patriot, refuſed to pay it; upon which he was ſued, and the cauſe was pleaded twelve days. Although he was caſt, a trial of this kind taught the people but too well to ſtruggle againſt the crown.

Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf;

CHAP. LVII.

ſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland. The ſcots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented engliſh, and invaded England: Charles marched againſt the rebels, but was diſarmed by an appearance of ſubmiſſion. Scarcely had the ſcots ceaſed to dread him, when they renewed their attempts, and civil war again became unavoidable. It being impoſſible to get any more money, Charles at laſt aſſembled a parliament, after an interval of nine years. But he found it inſenſible to his wants, violent againſt his prerogative, and diſſolved it according to cuſtom. With the generous aſſiſtance of Laud, Strafford, and other noblemen, he raiſed an army; but could not hinder the ſcots from penetrating into England, and taking Newcaſtle.

A. D. 1640.

The diſſolution of four parliaments was an unlucky prognoſtic, and he ſummoned a fifth, without foreſeeing that he was to fall its victim. This dreadful aſſembly, where the republican ſpirit was invigorated by the fanaticiſm of the puritans, began with a bold and deciſive ſtroke. The commons impeached Laud and Strafford of high treaſon. Strafford, after a long trial, was condemned, under pretext of ſome arbitrary acts, which were ſufficiently juſtified by ancient cuſtom, and the neceſſity of the conjunctures. The

mad

mad populace cried aloud for the blood of this loyal nobleman: the virtuous Strafford exhorted the king to make that ſacrifice; and Charles was weak enough to ſign this fatal act, which ſhewed his ſubjects the way to ſhed blood ſtill more precious. Laud was not executed till three years after. CHAP. LVII.

By a deplorable fatality the flame catched Ireland in its turn, where the civil wars were rekindled. The iriſh in general ſtill lamented ſecretly the deprivation of their ancient rights, and longed with anxiety to be reſtored to them. They would have inſenſibly forgotten the privileges they had loſt, and have been reconciled to their ſtation, had the engliſh treated them kindly. Inſtead of this, they were partial, took every advantage of their weakneſs, and ſcourged them with the heavy hand of oppreſſion.

From theſe cauſes, and the favourable circumſtances of the times, a ſcheme was formed by ſome of the principal natives of a general inſurrection. Roger O'Moor, the head of a diſtinguiſhed family, which had greatly ſuffered by the injuſtice of the engliſh, took an active part on the preſent occaſion. He maintained a cloſe correſpondence with lord M'Guire and Sir Phelim O'Neil, the moſt powerful of the old iriſh. An attempt to ſurprize the caſtle of Dublin being defeated, the inſurgents gave themſelves up, without reſtraint, to the impulſe of ſanguinary

CHAP LVII.

A. D. 1641.

paſſions. To put numbers of defenceleſs proteſtants to death in cold blood; to drive them in a winter ſeaſon from their habitations to the open fields, where they were expoſed to periſh by the accumulated evils of cold, nakedneſs, and famine, were ſhocking acts of cruelty. Nature ſhrinks from the dreadful ſcene: to dwell upon it would be no leſs painful than inconſiſtent with the limits of this undertaking.

Charles was in Scotland, endeavouring to appeaſe the troubles, when he received the news of the inſurrection, and immediately demanded aſſiſtance againſt the iriſh rebels. The ſcotch parliament granted but a very ſmall matter; and that of England, catching at an offer which he imprudently made them, to commit the management of the war to their prudence and care, levied money, and collected arms, under the pretence of ſuccouring him, but really with a deſign to turn them againſt him.

It would have been difficult for a ſtrong and ſkilful hand to hold the helm in ſo ſevere a ſtorm: but Charles ſeemed to throw himſelf upon the rocks. He went in perſon to the houſe of commons to ſeize five members. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people; and the commons rejected all offers of ſatisfaction he could make them. Charles quitted London, where he was no longer in ſafety; the queen was inſulted by the fanatics, and both ſides

CHAP. LVII.

ſides turned their thoughts on war, which was now unavoidable. Misfortunes called forth the king's virtues. Almoſt all the nobility and the principal gentlemen embraced his party. The parliamentarians had on their ſide the city of London, and moſt of the trading towns. They were maſter of the ſea-ports, the fleet, and the revenue.

The firſt hoſtilities turned to the advantage of the king. The rebels were defeated in ſeveral engagements. The ſcots were invited to come to their aſſiſtance; and they accordingly invaded England anew, with about twenty thouſand horſe and foot.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received was at Marſton-moor. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Oliver Cromwell, who now began to play an important part. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſects of independents: they equally hated the preſbyterians and loyaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, and for introducing Fairfax, who, though a man of integrity, had but a weak underſtanding, and always ſuffered himſelf to be duped by Cromwell's artifices. A. D. 1644.

CHAP. LVII.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. Prince Rupert, whoſe impetuous courage had already drawn him into ſeveral errors, determined the king to a battle, without waiting for a reinforcement, which was to join him in a ſhort time; and the rebels gained a

A. D. 1645.

deciſive victory at Naſeby. After this battle, Charles underwent an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of misfortunes of every kind. Upon the point of being beſiged in Oxford, he put himſelf into the hands of the ſcots, who were laying ſiege to Newark. Though they received him with appearances of reſpect, they extorted from him orders to the governors, for ſurrendering the ſtrong places, and ſoon after ſold him to the engliſh parliament for four hundred thouſand pounds: an infamous bargain; after which we ought not to be ſurpriſed at any deed of horror.

The parliament having the king in their hands, was all-powerful. Theſe pretended defenders of liberty were become the oppreſſors of the nation, and the laws; and carried their deſpotiſm infinitely beyond what they had ſo grievouſly reproached in their ſovereign. The army reſolving to deſtroy this odious tyranny, in order to ſet up one of their own, carried off Charles, marched to London, gave law, and oppreſſed the parliament.

Charles

CHAP. LVII.

Charles having made his eſcape, was imprudent enough to put himſelf into the hands of Hammond, the parliament's governor of the iſle of Wight. The army once more ſeized upon the king's perſon, brought him priſoner to London, carried him before a mock court of juſtice of their own erecting, and after a ſham trial, he was executed on a ſcaffold before his own palace. If the rebels triumphed, at leaſt the body of the people opened their eyes in conſternation, felt the pangs of remorſe, and looked with horror on a crime not to be paralleled in the hiſtory of any age or nation.

A. D. 1649.

It will now be proper to caſt our eyes on the continent, before we carry further the affairs of England.

CHAP. LVIII.

The Continent of Europe, from the Peace of Weſtphalia, to the Pyrennean Treaty, in 1659, *and the Peace of Oliva, in* 1660.

CHAP. LVIII.

A. D. 1648.

LEWIS XIV. was yet in his minority, and diſcovered no ſymptoms of that ambitious ſpirit which afterwards ſpread terror over Europe. Anne of Auſtria, the queen regent, repoſed her whole confidence in cardinal Mazarine. It was impoſſible that a foreigner, who was maſter of the government, could avoid becoming an object of envy, hatred, and cabals. The coadjutor, archbiſhop of Paris, afterwards the famous cardinal de Retz, a man of a reſtleſs, intriguing, ſeditious, and libertine character, encouraged the enemies of the court, and ſoon kindled a civil war. The great Condè, who had at firſt ſupported the government, revolted; and Turenne, who had oppoſed it, became a loyaliſt. Thus the heroes of their country attacked, and defended it alternately, as they were hurried away by a kind of infatuation, or brought back by motives of intereſt, or a ſenſe of duty.

The king, his mother, and his miniſter, had very near being ſeized at Gien, by the prince of Condè, but were ſaved by the abilities of Turenne;

CHAP. LVIII.

renne; and the court, under the protection of its defender, took the road to Paris, where the battle of St. Anthony was fought in the ſuburbs of that name. The two generals did wonders on that occaſion, and victory declared for the royal army; when the daughter of the duke of Orleans cauſed the cannon of the Baſtile to be fired, which forced Turenne to retreat. A. D. 1652.

As the hatred againſt the miniſter ſeemed implacable, the king conſented to his removal, and diſmiſſed him. The duke of Orleans was baniſhed, cardinal de Retz was impriſoned, and Condè being unſucceſsful in his rebellion, had joined the ſpaniards. To theſe ſtorms ſucceeded ſo ſtill a calm, that Mazarine again appeared peaceably at court, reſumed all his authority, and ſaw himſelf courted by every body.

Weak as the ſpaniards were, they had found means to turn the diſſentions of France to their advantage. They retook Barcelona, and ſtormed Gravelines and Dunkirk. Turenne marched to the relief of Arras, which was beſieged by the archduke Leopold and the prince of Condè; forced their lines, and left Condè only the glory of making an admirable retreat.

Mazarine having juſt made an alliance with Cromwell, the joint forces of France and England beſieged Dunkirk, under the command of Turenne; and Don John of Auſtria, and the prince of Condè, who came with an army to A. D. 1658.

CHAP. LVIII.

relieve it, being repulſed with great loſs, the city was taken, and delivered up to the engliſh, as had been agreed upon with Cromwell. At length peace was concluded between France and Spain, near the Pyrennean mountains, by the two chief miniſters of ſtate on both ſides, Mazarine, and Don Lewis de Haro; by virtue of which France was to keep Rouſillon, and the greateſt part of the places which were taken in the Netherlands. Mary Thereſa, the infanta, was to be married to Lewis XIV. and the prince of Condè to be received into favour again. In the year following died Mazarine, and left the reins of government to Lewis XIV. who had become impatient of a yoke which he was afraid to ſhake off.

A. D. 1659.

The affairs of Germany, and the northern crowns, now claim our attention.

A. D. 1657.

After the death of Ferdinand III. his ſon Leopold was raiſed to the imperial throne. The firſt meaſure of Leopold's was, the finiſhing of an alliance, which his father had begun, with Poland and Denmark, in oppoſition to Sweden. This latter kingdom had been raiſed to the higheſt pitch of military reputation, by the victories of Guſtavus Adolphus: his daughter Chriſtina, no leſs ambitious of fame, though neither in the camp nor the cabinet, immortalized her ſhort reign, by declaring herſelf the patroneſs of learning and the polite arts. She drew

drew to her court Grotius, Voſſius, Deſcartes, and other eminent men, whom ſhe liberally rewarded. Being preſſed by her ſubjects to marry, which ſhe had determined not to do, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin, Charles Guſtavus, prince palatine of Deux Ponts. CHAP. LVIII. A. D. 1654.

Charles X. had great ſucceſs againſt the poles. Warſaw, the capital, was obliged to ſurrender; and Caſimer, the poliſh king, took refuge in Sileſia. He next entered Denmark, then governed by Frederick III. and laid ſiege to Copenhagen, which muſt have ſurrendered, if it had not been relieved by the dutch fleet. He died ſoon after of an epidemical fever that raged in his camp.

Charles XI. being but five years old when his father died, the ſwedes laboured to obtain an honourable peace, which was accordingly concluded at Oliva. A. D. 1660.

CHAP.

CHAP. LIX.

The Commonwealth of England, under Cromwell.

CHAP. LIX.

AFTER the death of the king, the houſe of commons aboliſhed the houſe of peers, and declared that the monarchy no longer ſubſiſted.

A. D. 1649. Cromwell went to ſubdue Ireland, where the marquis of Ormond ſtill defended the royal cauſe. He took by aſſault the town of Drogheda, and put the garriſon to the ſword; one perſon only, as it has been related by ſome hiſtorians, eſcaping to bear the mournful tidings.

Scotland was ſoon after ſubjected to the yoke. Charles II. having no other reſource, caſt himſelf into the arms of the ſcots. He ſubmitted to the humiliating terms impoſed by their fanatical zeal; but being more a ſlave than a king among them, he had ſcarce a ſhadow of authority. Cromwell marched againſt them with the parliament's forces. The ſcots, who were entrenched on the hills near Dunbar, might have conquered without fighting; but their clergymen, by propheſying a more glorious victory, forced general Leſley to march down and give battle; when Cromwell routed them at the firſt onſet.

A. D. 1651. The next year the king boldly paſſed into England, while his oppreſſor was completing the conqueſt of Scotland. Cromwell, upon this, redoubled

doubled his activity, attacked the king in Worceſter, which he forced with dreadful ſlaughter. The unfortunate Charles fled in diſguiſe, concealed himſelf a whole day in an oak, and wandered forty days in the midſt of his enemies; at leaſt nobody had the weakneſs to betray him, notwithſtanding ſo many motives to turn traitor; and he found a veſſel to convey him to France. CHAP. LIX.

The engliſh republic (for the tyrants aſſumed that majeſtic title) ſoon ſhewed herſelf formidable to her neighbours. She paſſed the famous act of navigation, and declaring war againſt Holland, ſeven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp.

Cromwell, who had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the army, hearing that the parliament was going to paſs a vote contrary to his views, haſtened to the houſe, followed by ſome ſoldiers, and drove out all the members. But to leave the nation ſome ſhadow of liberty, he formed another parliament, compoſed of fanatics, and the dregs of the people. However, they made themſelves ſo contemptible, that Cromwell determined to diſſolve them, which he did without difficulty.

This ſhadow of a parliament being diſſolved, the officers of their own authority declared Cromwell protector of the commonwealth of England.

If

CHAP. LIX.

If he oppreſſed the ſtate, at leaſt he made it reſpectable abroad. He obliged Holland to yield the honour of the flag. He took the iſland of Jamaica from the ſpaniards; and the famous admiral Blake burnt a ſpaniſh fleet at the Canaries, notwithſtanding the fire of a battery, and ſeven redoubts. A great man, and a good patriot, he ſerved the ſtate without loving Cromwell. *We ought to fight for our country*, ſaid he, *into whatever hands it be fallen.* We have already ſeen in what manner the protector got poſſeſſion of Dunkirk.

A. D. 1658.

After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died, ſurrounded by enthuſiaſts, in the ſixtieth year of his age.

Richard Cromwell ſucceeded his father without oppoſition; but had neither the genius nor the reſolution neceſſary for ſo high a ſtation. Being a man of mild character and ſimple manners, free from fanaticiſm, he was from the beginning the ſport of factions. Finding himſelf without any ſupport, he abdicated in 1659, to live in the obſcurity of peaceful retirement. His brother, the lord lieutenant of Ireland, in like manner, threw up all his employments. Thus diſappeared in a moment the family of that uſurper, who had governed his commonwealth with the authority of a deſpot, and refuſed the title of king.

CHAP.

CHAP. LX.

A View of Europe, from the Reſtoration of Charles II. to the Peace of Nimeguen, in 1678.

AFTER Richard Cromwell's abdication, Lambert played in the army the part which had raiſed Cromwell to the ſupreme power. But the body of the nation ſighed for the reſtoration of the monarchy; the plan of which a great man formed in ſecret, and ſuddenly executed. CHAP. LX.

George Monck, a celebrated general, and wiſe politician, was governor of Scotland, and declared in favour of the *rump* parliament, as it was called, which had been driven out by Lambert. Lambert was abandoned by his ſoldiers, and could not defend himſelf. Monck arrived in London without diſcloſing his intentions. A new parliament was called, which proved favourable to the royal cauſe; and Charles II. was proclaimed king, and received by the people with tranſports of joy. A. D. 1660.

That prince, who was then thirty years of age, mild, amiable, and of a good underſtanding, might have made himſelf the idol of his people. Adverſity, more proper to form the mind of a ſovereign than any other kind of inſtruction, had given him practical leſſons, the uſe of which is unknown in the pomp and luxury of courts. His clemency ſaved a multitude of criminals, whom the

CHAP. LX.

the parliament was desirous of excepting from the indemnity which he had granted; only eleven of the regicides were excluded from taking the benefit of it. They died with great firmness, and seemed to consider themselves as martyrs to their civil and religious principles.

Charles was exposed to misfortunes or vexation, by two great faults in his character: he was too fond of pleasure, and had no œconomy. After dissipating the portion of his wife, Catharine of Portugal, he sold Dunkirk to Lewis XIV. in 1662, for four hundred thousand pounds. He also engaged the nation in a war with Holland, for the purpose of diverting part of the parliamentary aids to supply his own profusion. In this war, the sea was covered with the ships of the two nations. The english fleet commanded by the duke of York, gained a victory in 1665; but the grand pensionary, John de Wit, soon repaired that misfortune.

Meanwhile Lewis XIV. declared for Holland, and dispatched the duke of Beaufort with a squadron of forty sail to join the dutch; but this was not effected before a dreadful battle was fought, which lasted four days; when both fleets, as if weary of carnage, retired to their respective harbours. The english afterwards defeated De Ruyter, who making a glorious retreat, lamented that he had escaped so many cannon balls. About this period more than one hundred thousand men

lost

CHAP. LX.

oft their lives in London by the plague. A fire onſumed above thirteen thouſand houſes in that ity, for it was almoſt entirely built of wood. In he midſt of ſo many calamities, the rage of war vas relaxed, negociations were carried on at Breda, during which Ruyter burnt ſome ſhips n the Thames; at laſt peace was concluded in 667, by which the engliſh retained poſſeſſion of New York.

The ſhameful concluſion of the dutch war illed the people with indignation; and Charles, n order to recover his popularity, ſacrificed the famous lord Clarendon to the national reſentment. This virtuous and incorruptible miniſter was obliged to quit England, and ſettle in France, where he compoſed a work worthy of immortality,—the hiſtory of the laſt civil wars in his own country.

The next meaſure of the king's, namely, he triple alliance, was no leſs popular, and more leſerving of praiſe; though Lewis XIV. by the reaty of the pyrenees, had renounced all title of ſucceſſion to any part of the ſpaniſh dominions, which might occur in conſequence of his marriage with the infanta Maria Thereſa, on the death of his father-in-law, Philip IV. he retracted his renounciation, and laid claim to a conſiderable province of the ſpaniſh monarchy, even to the excluſion of his brother-in-law, Charles II. who was an infant.

Lewis

CHAP. LX.

Lewis, to ſupport his claim, entered Flanders at the head of forty thouſand men; the ſpaniards were in no condition to reſiſt ſuch a force—the french arms carried every thing before them:—this great ſucceſs of France alarmed the neighbouring powers, and cauſed the famous triple alliance entered into between England, Holland, and Sweden, for maintaining the balance of power in Europe, and bridling the ambition of Lewis XIV. The haughty conqueror ſtopped ſhort; he found it neceſſary to offer peace, which was accordingly concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle.

A. D. 1668.

After the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, France continued equally to increaſe in ſtrength and ſplendour—her commerce grew with her navy; Colbert and Louvois laboured with emulation for the glory of the monarch, and that kingdom became an object of admiration as well as jealouſy to foreigners.

The turks beſieging Candia, one of the principal poſſeſſions of Venice, Lewis diſpatched ſeven thouſand men, under the command of the duke of Beaufort, to fight againſt the infidels: but the other nations remaining inactive, it only retarded the taking of the city, which capitulated after a ſiege of three years.

A. D. 1669.

Lewis XIV. was irritated againſt the triple alliance, which had ſtopped him ſhort in the career of his rapid conqueſts—he could not forgive Holland, which he had ſuccoured againſt England;

land; being therefore reſolved to ſubdue this bold republic, he found means to detach Charles rom the alliance; this prince's council was compoſed of five new miniſters, who were nicknamed the *cabal*, from the initial letters of their names, and who gained his confidence by entering into his paſſions. The project of uniting with France, which would furniſh him powerful ſuccours, and afterwards reigning with arbitrary power, was probably hatched by that council; a ſcheme entirely conformable to the genius of the duke of York, who had great influence over the king. CHAP. LX.

Unluckily for the republic, it was divided into factions—John de Wit, and his brother Cornelius, rigid adherents to liberty, had cauſed the young prince, William III. to be excluded from the ſtadtholderſhip. William aſpired to the dignity of his anceſtors, had a numerous party; and the diſcord at home increaſed the dangers from abroad.

Lewis marched at the head of all his forces, accompanied by his moſt renowned generals, againſt that little ſtate which could oppoſe him only with a few mercenary troops. In leſs than three months the provinces of Utrecht, Overyſſel, and Gueldres, were conquered. Amſterdam beheld the enemy almoſt at her gates. Meantime Ruyter gained glory in a ſea-fight againſt the combined fleets of England and France, near Solebay; the Duke of York ſuffered ſo dread-

CHAP. LX.

ful a fire that he was conſtrained to change his ſhip. Though this engagement ſupported the honour of the Dutch flag, yet the republic believed herſelf inevitably ruined. Some marauders appeared near the capital, and the gates would have been opened had the party been more numerous.

In this dreadful ſituation the ſtates general ſued for peace; their deputies implored the clemency of the victor, but were received by Louvois with inſulting haughtineſs, and intolerable conditions preſcribed; on this news the terror of the people was changed into deſpair; and deſpair revived the republican courage. The populace, tranſported with fury, forgetting the ſervices of the de Wits, and charging them with being the authors of the preſent calamities, murdered and tore them to pieces. The young prince of Orange being created ſtadtholder, became the principal ſupport of the ſtate. In order to remove the enemy, the dutch ordered the dykes, which kept out the ſea, to be thrown down; Amſterdam, and other towns were ſurrounded with water; William animated the people, and aſſured them of ſpeedy aſſiſtance from the other powers of Europe, whom he ſolicited not without ſucceſs.

England was filled with indignation at the pernicious ſyſtem purſued by Charles II. The elector of Brandenburgh openly declared himſelf;

CHAP. LX.

ſelf; promiſed the dutch a body of twenty-thouſand men, and engaged the emperor Leopold to furniſh them with twenty-four thouſand; Denmark, with almoſt all Germany, entered into this league, and Spain in a ſhort time followed their example.

At laſt the popular clamour obliged Charles to conclude a ſeparate peace with Holland, and two hundred thouſand pounds was paid him by that republic, in conſideration of the expences of the war. A D. 1674.

In a ſhort time France was deſerted by all her allies, except Sweden. The emperor, with a great part of the empire, Spain, and Denmark, were her enemies as well as Holland; yet ſhe had great reſources in the authority of the king, the ſkill of her miniſters, and generals, and the ardour of the nation accuſtomed to victory. It will not come within our limits to give a particular detail of the events of the war; there are already a ſufficient number of books filled with the minute particulars of military actions, and details of human rage and miſery; the deſign of this abridgment is to deſcribe the principal characters of theſe revolutions, and to remove the multitude of trifling facts, in order to ſet to view thoſe only which are conſiderable.

Lewis maintained his ground, alone, againſt all the enemies he had drawn upon him. He, at one and the ſame time, furniſhed Turenne with

CHAP. LX.

an army of twenty three thouſand men, againſt the imperialiſts; Condè, with one of forty thouſand, againſt the prince of Orange; and a body of troops were ſtationed on the borders of Rouſſilon; a fleet of tranſports, full of ſoldiers, were ſent to carry the war among the ſpaniards, even to the gates of Meſſina, while he himſelf marched in perſon to ſubdue Franch Compte; in a word, he at once defended himſelf, and attacked his enemies on every ſide.

The greateſt loſs the french arms ſuſtained was the death of the famous Turenne; he was oppoſed by Montecuculi, a general worthy of being his antagoniſt; during two months, they rivalled each other in admirable marches, and encampments, foreſeeing each others deſigns; never ſurpriſed, and always ſeizing the ſmalleſt advantage. Turenne was making diſpoſitions for a battle, when he was ſlain by a cannon ſhot near Staſback.

Condè, who commanded in Flanders, attacked the prince of Orange at Senef, near Mons, where he had three horſes killed under him; the field of battle was covered with twenty thouſand dead bodies, though the victory remained undecided. Notwithſtanding the abilities of the prince of Orange, he ſtill felt the ſuperiority of the french arms; he had raiſed the ſiege of Maeſtricht in 1667, and the duke of Orleans defeated him at Caſſel.

Meantime

CHAP. LX.

Meantime negotiations were carried on at Nimeguen; the confederates were divided by motives of private intereſt. France impoſed terms of peace, and it was neceſſary to accept them. The Dutch ſeparated from the confederacy for their own advantage. Here the ambitious prince of Orange, who, though he knew the peace was either concluded, or on the point of being concluded, ſignalized himſelf in an odious manner; he attacked the duke of Luxemburgh, near Mons, with his whole forces. That worthy pupil of the great Condè was ſurpriſed, but not vanquiſhed; he even had the advantage. The peace had been ſigned four days before. What advantage then could the prince of Orange hope from a victory? and how could he waſh away the ſtain of that blood which he wantonly ſhed? Is mankind then the ſport of a few illuſtrious murderers?

A. D. 1678.

The ſpaniards ſeeing the dutch had accepted of terms of peace, followed their example; and the germans, abandoned by Spain and Holland, ſigned after all the others, confirming the treaties of Weſtphalia.

CHAP. LXI.

England, to the End of the Reign of Charles II.

CHAP. LXI.

SO entirely had Charles loſt the confidence of his people by his connection with France, that his beſt meaſures were ſuppoſed to proceed from bad motives; nay, the more popular any meaſure appeared, the more it was ſuſpected of ſome dangerous purpoſe. A general terror prevailed of popery and arbitrary power. The famous Titus Oates, and ſome other miſcreants, forged a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery, by means of the jeſuits. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than the whole of this forgery, yet it was ſupported by even more than frantic zeal, on the part of the parliament. The aged and innocent lord Stafford, Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York, with many jeſuits, and other papiſts, were publickly executed on perjured evidences. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty. The duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an infamous impoſture, yielded to the torrent. The

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earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the duke of Monmouth, the king's illegitimate ſon; and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. CHAP. LXI.

The famous *habeas corpus* act againſt arbitrary impriſonments, was now paſſed by the parliament. By this act, it is prohibited to ſend any one to priſon beyond ſea. Every priſoner, upon his own requiſition, muſt be carried before a court of juſtice, accuſed, and tried within a period limited by law; and if reſtored to liberty by the judges, cannot again be impriſoned for the ſame cauſe. A. D. 1679.

Charles, after diſſolving three parliaments, ſummoned a fourth to meet at Oxford, where he hoped the ſame ſeditious ſpirit would not prevail as had done in London; but his expectations were fruſtrated. They likewiſe inſiſted on the bill of excluſion; and were diſſolved.

A conſpiracy, formed by the earl of Shafteſbury, into which the duke of Monmouth, the lords Ruſſel, Grey, Howard, and others entered, might have overturned the government, if it had not been diſcovered. Monmouth and Shafteſbury made their eſcape to Holland; and the excellent lord Ruſſel, Algernon Sidney, beſides ſeveral diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, ſuffered death. A. D. 1683.

CHAP. LXI.

Charles ruled with abſolute authority till his death, which happened in 1685, in the forty-ninth year of his age. As he left behind him no lawful iſſue, his brother was acknowledged, under the title of James II.

CHAP.

CHAP. LXII.

A Sketch of the Affairs of Europe, from the Peace of Nimeguen, to the Revocation of the Edict of Nantz.

CHAP. LXII.

THE general peace proved no reſtraint upon Lewis's ambition. While the empire, Spain, and Holland, diſbanded their extraordinary troops, Lewis kept his in pay. He eſtabliſhed judicatories for annexing to the crown all the territories which were formerly dependent upon Alſace, the biſhoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, or any of his late conqueſts. Theſe arbitrary courts enquired into titles buried in the moſt remote antiquity; they cited the neighbouring princes, and even the king of Spain, to appear before them, and to render homage to the king of France; or to behold the confiſcation of their poſſeſſions.

Straſburg, a very powerful city, whoſe bridge, over the Rhine, opened a paſſage into the kingdom, was ſtill free; and Lewis earneſtly deſired to have it ſubjected to France. While he employed money and threatnings to influence the magiſtrates, he cauſed twenty thouſand men to march into the neighbourhood, who ſoon determined the ſucceſs of the negociation. Straſburg capitulated, and preſerved its ancient privileges. Alarmed at theſe ambitious pretenſions, the empire

A. D. 1681.

CHAP. LXII.

pire, Spain, and Holland, began to take meaſures for reſtraining the encroachments of France: but Spain was yet too feeble to enter upon a new war; and the imperial armies were required in another quarter, to oppoſe a more preſſing danger.

The hungarians, whoſe privileges Leopold had never ſufficiently reſpected, had broke out into rebellion; and Fekeli, the head of the inſurgents, had called in the turks to ſupport his countrymen. A turkiſh army of two hundred

A. D. 1683.

thouſand men advanced to the very gates of Vienna, after laying all waſte in its march. The emperor fled to Paſſau; and Vienna was on the point of ſurrendering, when it was relieved by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. This magnanimous prince, having joined the imperial troops, attacked the intrenchments of the turks, who being ſeized with a panic, ſcarcely made any reſiſtance, and left all to the conquerors.

The power of Lewis XIV. was now at its utmoſt pitch. He ſent ſhips of war againſt the african pirates. Algiers was bombarded, and ſent to beg for mercy. Tunis and Tripoli made the

A. D. 1685.

like ſubmiſſions. Genoa, for ſome imagined crime, ſuffered a bombardment, and part of its palace was reduced to aſhes. The doge, and four of the principal ſenators, were obliged to go in perſon to Verſailles, and implore the king's mercy.

After

After the death of Colbert, who had protected the calviniſts, Lewis revoked the edict of Nantz, paſſed by Henry IV. in 1589. Liberty of conſcience was aboliſhed; all the proteſtant churches were deſtroyed; the miniſters were baniſhed; and France was deprived of near ſix hundred thouſand of her moſt valuable inhabitants, who fled their country, carrying along with them their wealth, their induſtry, and their manufactures, into England, Holland, and Germany.

About the ſame time a blind zeal for religion paved the way for the cataſtrophe of the Stuarts in England, which was followed by a general war againſt Lewis XIV. We ought to pay our greateſt attention to England, when ſhe exhibits thoſe grand ſcenes in which all the energy of the national character is diſplayed.

CHAP.

CHAP. LXIII.

Great Britain and Ireland, from the Death of Charles II. to the Revolution in 1688; *and the Battle off La Hogue in* 1692.

CHAP. LXIII. JAMES II. might have been one of the greateſt kings in Europe, if he had ſhewn more regard to the religion and laws of his country; but an unfortunate paſſion for arbitrary power, and an indiſcreet zeal for the church of Rome, expoſed him to the hatred of his people. Soon after his A. D. 1685. acceſſion, he went openly to maſs, with all the enſigns of his dignity; and even ſent an agent to Rome, to make ſubmiſſion to the pope. Theſe were but inauſpicious ſymptoms in the very beginning of his reign; but the progreſs fell no way ſhort of the commencement.

The duke of Monmouth, a natural ſon of Charles, rebelled againſt his uncle; whom, in his manifeſto, he called a tyrant, and a popiſh uſurper. Monmouth was defeated and executed. James let ſlip an opportunity of making himſelf beloved for his clemency; and made himſelf deteſted by his barbarity. On pretence of puniſhing the guilty, an inhuman officer of the army, (colonel Kirk) and ſtill more, Jefferies, the lord chief juſtice, bathed themſelves in blood;

and Jefferies, after condemning about five hundred perſons, was appointed chancellor of the kingdom. CHAP. LXIII.

James now granted an univerſal toleration, of which it was evident that the catholics were the true object. Six biſhops refuſed to publiſh the declaration for liberty of conſcience, becauſe it was illegal; and were therefore immediately ſent to priſon. However, they had a fair trial, were acquitted by the judges, and the people openly manifeſted their joy. A. D. 1688.

James had two daughters, Mary, and Anne; the firſt married to William prince of Orange; the ſecond to prince George of Denmark. A revolution might raiſe William to the throne of England. That profound ambitious politician, ſeeing his hopes of ſucceſſion blaſted by the unexpected birth of a prince of Wales, fomented the diſcontents of the people. At length, after repeated invitations, William ſet out with a fleet of about five hundred ſail, in which he had embarked an army of more than fourteen thouſand men. He had ſcarcely landed, on the fifteenth of November, when numbers of the engliſh troops and officers haſtened to join him. Churchill, afterwards duke of Marlborough, the favourite of James, did not heſitate to betray his unhappy maſter. The prince of Denmark, his ſon-in-law, and even his beloved daughter, the princeſs Anne, cruelly abandoned him; upon which he

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he loſt all courage, diſtruſted his army, dreaded his parliament, and fled even without trying his fortune. He was taken, and refuſed an interview by the prince of Orange, who ſent him priſoner to Rocheſter, from whence he eſcaped into France.

The only thing that now remained for all parties, was the ſettlement of the kingdom. A parliament was ſummoned, and met ſimply as a *convention*; becauſe the name of *parliament*, ſuppoſes their being convoked by the king. The commons declared, that "James having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution, by breaking the *original contract* between *king* and *people*, and having violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himſelf from the kingdom, had *abdicated* the government; and that the throne is thereby become *vacant*." After ſome keen diſputes in the houſe of lords on the reality of the national contract; on the violation of that contract; and, laſtly, on the throne being vacant, the declaration of the commons was received without amendment.

The parliament came next to deliberate, whether a king, or a regent, ſhould be appointed; and upon this occaſion the ambition of the prince of Orange was unmaſked. He declared to ſome of the nobility, that he would no longer interfere in the affairs of the kingdom, whether they ſettled a regency, or aſſigned the crown to the

princeſs Mary, his wife;—in a word, if he was only to enjoy a precarious dignity, attached to the life of another perſon. This threat had its weight. Both houſes voted, "that the prince "and princeſs of Orange, ſhould be declared "king and queen of England." To this was added a declaration, fixing the rights of the ſubject, and reſtraining the royal prerogative. CHAP. LXIII. A. D. 1689.

Before we return to the affairs of the continent, it will be proper firſt to relate the efforts made by James II. for the recovery of his crown. He was received with marks of the moſt cordial affection by Lewis XIV. who ſent a powerful french ſquadron to tranſport the dethroned monarch into Ireland; and he was ſpeedily followed by freſh ſuccours. He found the iriſh inclined to ſerve him; and was received with tranſports of joy in Dublin: but the more the catholics teſtified their zeal, the leſs did he attempt to conciliate the minds of the proteſtants. Londonderry, where the proteſtant religion prevailed, where their miniſter, Walker, gave his orders, and inſpired the inhabitants with enthuſiaſm, was the firſt rock upon which he ſplit. He raiſed the ſiege of that place, after having loſt nine thouſand men.

William went over to Ireland, and James wanted to riſk an engagement. The two armies having each about thirty thouſand men, came in ſight of one another on the oppoſite banks of the Boyne, A. D. 1690.

CHAP. LXIII.

Boyne, near Drogheda. While William was examining the ground, a cannon ball grazed his ſhoulder, and the enemy, believing he was killed, gave vent to their joy; but having encouraged his army, by riding along the lines, he gave the order of battle for the next day. The
July 1. action was deciſive; and he paſſed the river expoſed to the greateſt dangers. The duke of Schomberg was killed ſoon after reaching the oppoſite bank, but not before he had broken the iriſh infantry. James did not even appear, though it was of ſo much conſequence to him to ſet an example; and France very ſoon witneſſed his return, ſtill leſs deſerving the ſacrifices ſhe had made in his favour.

Ireland was entirely ſubdued by William's generals in two campaigns. St. Ruth, who commanded the iriſh army, was ſlain at the battle of
A. D. 1691. Aughrim, and his army totally routed. The remains of the iriſh forces took refuge in Limerick; and after a ſiege of ſix weeks, that important place capitulated. Fourteen thouſand iriſh took advantage of the permiſſion granted them by the articles of capitulation, and bid adieu for ever to their native country.

The adherents of James, however, were ſtill numerous in the north of Scotland; and the cruel maſſacre of Glenco could not fail to rouſe the reſentment of the jacobites in general. An inſurrection in favour of the dethroned monarch,

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they were by their diſcipline; for the cavalry being broken, the king's baggage plundered, and himſelf in danger of being made priſoner. The intrepid ſteadineſs and continual fire of the infantry recovered all; and in the end he gained a victory—a preſage of greater ſucceſs. CHAP. LXIX.

The king of Pruſſia was not miſtaken in his conjectures; for other powers, invited by his ſucceſs, took up arms againſt the queen of Hungary, the title by which ſhe was commonly known. Although France had guarantied the pragmatic ſanction, the duke of Belleiſle and his brother ſucceeded ſo far as to inſpire a reſolution contrary to the views of cardinal Fleury. They imagined that the period, ſo long wiſhed for, was arrived, of finally breaking the power of the houſe of Auſtria, and exalting that of Bourbon on its ruins; by diſmembering the dominions of Maria Thereſa, and placing on the imperial throne Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, a ſtipendiary of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

The moderation and natural equity of Lewis XV. yielded to arguments ſo flattering to his pride, and the duke de Belleiſle was diſpatched into Germany, in the double capacity of ambaſſador and general, to negociate and ſettle the whole project.

The elector of Bavaria, who was appointed lieutenant general to the french forces by Lewis XV. immediately made himſelf maſter of Paſſau,

CHAP. LXIX.

penetrated into Auſtria, as far as Lintz; and Vienna was thought to be in danger. To have got poſſeſſion of the capital would have been a deciſive blow; but inſtead of making the attempt, or purſuing the queen, who had fled for ſhelter to Hungary, the elector, impatient to get himſelf crowned king of Bohemia, invaded that country, and took the city of Prague by eſcalade. After the coronation, he went to receive the imperial crown at Franckfort, and was raiſed to the head of the empire by the name of Charles VII. The king of Pruſſia had in the mean time conquered Moravia; and a more deplorable ſituation than that of Maria Thereſa can ſcarcely be imagined.

But even danger procured her reſources. The ſpeech which ſhe made in latin to the hungarians, when ſhe threw herſelf upon their loyalty, made them melt in tears; and drawing their ſabres, they exclaimed, "*Let us die for our king, Maria Thereſa!*" They no longer thought of any thing but defending this princeſs, who truly deſerved to be reckoned among the number of great kings. England and Holland, not yet declaring themſelves, though they guarantied the pragmatic ſanction, ſent her aſſiſtance in money.

The enemies of the queen did her ſtill better ſervice, by the faults they committed. The marechal de Belleiſle, who had drawn France into this war, conducted her operations but badly. Marechal Broglio was aſſociated with him; but

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to no purpoſe, from the miſunderſtanding that prevailed between the two chiefs. They had too few cavalry; and prince Charles, brother to the grand duke, harraſſed and galled their army with his pandours, croats, and huſſars; a dreadful ſcourge for a ſcattered army, eaſy to be ſurpriſed; and at laſt the french and bavarian troops were reduced to almoſt nothing, without having come to any action of importance. CHAP. LXIX.

Prague was already evacuated, and the marechal de Belleiſle had only the honour of ſaving about thirteen thouſand, the wreck of a great and victorious army, by making a difficult retreat. From the heart of Germany, where they had been victorious, they were obliged to fall back towards the Rhine, to act upon the defenſive in that quarter; and the emperor, Charles VII. could not even ſave Bavaria; he had been driven from thence oftner than once, was deprived of his dominions, reduced to the condition of a fugitive, and experienced almoſt the ſame fate with his father.

The death of cardinal Fleury, changed the meaſures of government; the king took the adminiſtration into his own hands, and prepared to command the army—his miniſter, however able in other reſpects, had totally neglected the marine, and the engliſh took advantage of that political error.

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They ſupported the queen of Hungary in quality of auxiliaries, in the ſame manner as France did the emperor; and on both ſides the auxiliaries became principals. They tried their ſtrength at the battle of Dettingen, where George II. with his ſecond ſon, the duke of Cumberland, joined the army, which was commanded by the earl of Stair, a pupil of the famous Marlborough. The marechal de Noailles, at the head of the french army, had cut off the proviſions of the allies, by which they were reduced to the neceſſity of making a dangerous march, where they might be overpowered. By the excellence of his diſpoſitions, he had in a manner made himſelf ſure of a complete victory; but his inſtructions were not obeyed, and all his meaſures defeated by impetuoſity; a fault which has been often fatal to France. A lieutenant general quitted an advantageous poſt, where he was commanded to wait, attacked the allies before they fell into the ſnare, and loſt a number of men to no purpoſe. After a ſevere action, which laſted three hours, the marechal de Noailles found himſelf under the neceſſity of retreating with the loſs of five thouſand men.

A. D. 1743.

Italy could not eſcape the conflagration of war. About the end of the year 1741, the duke de Montemar, the ſpaniſh general, entered Italy with ſome forces; but was not fortunate, owing to the ſuperior ſtrength of the king of Sardinia, who

who had joined the auſtrians. As to the king of Naples, don Carlos, he was determined by the engliſh. One of their ſquadrons threatened to bombard the capital, if he did not promiſe to recall his troops from the ſpaniſh army, and gave him only one hour to determine. Not being in a ſtate of defence, don Carlos was obliged to put up with the inſult, and therefore gave his promiſe. Such is the ſuperiority conferred by the empire of the ſea! CHAP. LXIX.

In conſequence of a late alliance between France and Spain, the admirals of their combined fleets, in the harbour of Toulon, reſolved to give battle to that of England, by which they had been blocked up; and, if a miſunderſtanding had not prevailed between the engliſh admirals, Matthews and Leſtock, who were both men of courage and ability, the combined fleet muſt have been utterly ruined. A. D. 1744.

Meanwhile Lewis XV. made his firſt campaign and attacked the Low Countries. Courtray, Menin, Ypres, Furnes, and Fort Knock, were very ſoon taken; and marechal Saxe, natural brother to the king of Poland, covered theſe ſieges with a body of the army. But having ſuddenly received news that prince Charles of Lorraine had croſſed the Rhine, was got into Alſace, and making conſiderable progreſs, Lewis abandoned the theatre of his conqueſts, and haſtened to the protection of his provinces.

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Having arrived at Metz, he received the news of the king of Pruſſia being ſet out to ſiege Bohemia. Frederick prudently regulated his conduct by his circumſtances; although he had made an advantageous peace with the queen of Hungary, he was afraid that, if ſhe became too powerful, ſhe would one day deprive him of the fruits of his conqueſts; and, therefore, poured into Bohemia, forced Prague, after a ſiege of ten days, and made the garriſon of fifteen thouſand men, priſoners of war. That hero ſeemed invincible.

Prince Charles diligently paſſed the Rhine, without loſs, like a great general, who cannot be ſurpriſed; but, however rapid his march, it was not ſo ſpeedy as the conqueſt of the pruſſians; and though he could not prevent them, he had the honour of repairing the misfortune. He obliged the enemy to evacuate Bohemia, croſſed the Elbe before Frederick, and advanced into Sileſia. Nothing was to be ſeen but revolutions.

A. D. 1745.

It might have naturally been expected that the death of the emperor Charles VII. would have put an end to the war; but it was kept up by reſentment. The engliſh, finding themſelves threatened with an invaſion, in favour of Charles Edward, ſon of the pretender, gave vent to their hatred of the french name, as in the time of Lewis XIV. their money flowed in

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all quarters with profuſion, and all the allies ſeemed to be engaged in their pay. They furniſhed five hundred thouſand pounds to the queen of Hungary, and two hundred thouſand pounds to the king of Sardinia; they paid a great ſum to the king of Poland, whom they had drawn into the confederacy; and gave ſubſidies to the elector of Mentz, and even Cologne, the brother of Charles VII. for liberty to raiſe men in his dominions. After long heſitation, Holland eſpouſed the ſame quarrel. CHAP. LXIX.

The leading object in view of Lewis XV. was to complete the conqueſt of Flanders. He accordingly laid ſiege to Tournay, the principal town of the dutch barrier, upon which the allies were determined to come to an engagement; and their army conſiſting of fifty thouſand men, compoſed of engliſh, hanoverians, and dutch, advanced to that neighbourhood. Marechal Saxe, whoſe laſt campaign had been a maſter piece of military ſkill, exhauſted by a lingering diſorder, quitted Paris, ſaying, "*The buſineſs is not living, but marching.*" The king of France, with the dauphin, having joined the army, which amounted to ſeventy thouſand men, obſerved the evening before the action, that ſince the battle of Poitiers, no king of France had gained a ſignal victory againſt the engliſh; adding, that he hoped to be the firſt: and his expectation was not diſappointed.

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A. D. 1745.

The famous battle of Fontenoy was fought the 11th of May, 1745. The author of the age of Lewis XIV. has written a detail of this action. We ſhall only take notice of what is moſt eſſential. The dutch, after having twice attacked the poſt of Antoine, no longer continued to act; but the intrepidity of the engliſh and hanoverians brought France into the greateſt danger. The duke of Cumberland, ſon of George II. by whom they were commanded, advanced into a narrow ground with his troops, formed a cloſe, impenetrable column, expoſed to a moſt dreadful fire. This column penetrated gradually acroſs innumerable obſtacles, and by its weight bore down every oppoſition. The french were repulſed in every quarter; and it was believed the battle was loſt. Marechal Saxe ſeveral times ſent to entreat the king to retire; but Lewis would not quit his poſt. At laſt an expedient was hit upon, which was to level four pieces of cannon againſt the engliſh column; and when the cannon had made ſome impreſſion, to cauſe the houſehold troops and iriſh brigades to join in the charge, by which means the victory was decided. The duke of Cumberland retreated in good order, with the loſs of ſeven thouſand men: the french loſt ten thouſand. "You ſee "upon what the ſucceſs of battles depend," ſaid Marechal Saxe to Lewis XV. and thouſands of examples ſerve to ſhew that they are decided by accidents, or critical moments.

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The king of Pruſſia gained two bloody victories over the auſtrians, under the prince of Lorraine; one near Friburg, the other near Slandentz. He alſo invaded Saxony, and made himſelf maſter of Dreſden. The king of Poland now found himſelf under the neceſſity of ſueing for peace; and the king of Pruſſia was heartily tired of the war. A treaty was accordingly concluded between the two monarchs at Dreſden. Another treaty was at the ſame time concluded between his pruſſian majeſty and the queen of Hungary, which ſecured Frederic III. the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, on condition of his acknowledging the queen's huſband, Francis, emperor.

Maria Thereſa having no longer any thing to fear from the king of Pruſſia, ſent new troops into Italy. In conſequence of this addition of ſtrength, the king of Sardinia ſurpriſed Aſti, and took ſeven thouſand french, priſoners; and count Brown, an iriſhman in the ſervice of Auſtria, took Guaſtalla and Parma; and theſe misfortunes were completed by the battle of Placentia, in which the french and ſpaniards loſt more than eight thouſand men killed and wounded, and four thouſand taken priſoners. The remainder of the French army arrived at Genoa, but was obliged to abandon it, and haſten to the defence of Provence and Savoy. Genoa, in conſternation at the approach of the auſtrian army, ſent four ſenators

to

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to receive their orders, and ſubmitted upon the hardeſt conditions.

However, the cruel oppreſſions with which the people were treated, inſpired them with courage, dictated by deſpair. While the inhabitants were compelled to drag cannon from the arſenal, an auſtrian officer having rudely ſtruck one of the genoeſe, the people, in a fury, inſtantly aſſembled, flew to arms, and in a few days became formidable to the oppreſſors, by whom they were deſpiſed. A prince of the family of Doria, having put himſelf at the head of this multitude, they ruſhed upon the auſtrians, and compelled them to fly.

A. D. 1746.

Soon after this revolution died Philip V. of Spain, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. who at firſt embraced with ardour the principles of the union between the two branches of the Bourbon family.

While France was ſuffering irreparable misfortunes in Italy, ſhe gained the moſt honourable victories in the low countries. Bruſſels was taken in the middle of winter by marechal Saxe; and Antwerp, afterwards, by the king in perſon. Mons, Namur, &c. were rapidly carried; and the battle of Rocou gained over the confederates near Liege, cloſed the campaign 1746.

Although Holland kept up an apparent neutrality, ſhe furniſhed the confederates with every ſuc-

cour.

cour. Lewis therefore invaded the country in 1747. The french general, Lowendahl, made himſelf maſter of Sluys, Sandburg, Hulſt, and many other places of importance. Struck with conſternation at the progreſs of the french arms, the inhabitants of the United Provinces clamoured loudly againſt the miniſtry of the republic, and demanded a ſtadtholder; and the ſtates were obliged to renew that dignity, which had been aboliſhed ever ſince the death of William III. Henry Frizo, prince of Orange, was not only created ſtadtholder, but that office was rendered hereditary in his family. CHAP. LXIX. A D. 1747.

Meantime the king of France arrived at Bruſſels, and it was reſolved to undertake the ſiege of Maeſtricht; but this enterprize required a battle; and he attacked the allies, commanded by the duke of Cumberland, at Lawfeldt. The action was long and bloody; and if the britiſh troops, who diſtinguiſhed themſelves greatly, had been properly ſupported, inſtead of being defeated, they would have gained a complete victory.

After this dear purchaſed victory, the french laid ſiege to Bergen-op-Zoom; a place hitherto reckoned impregnable: however, it was taken by count Lowendahl, in three weeks after the trenches were opened. Holland then began to tremble; but another campaign was neceſſary to bring the evils of war to a concluſion.

Two

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Two months before the taking of this place, the bloody battle of Affiito compleated the diſaſters which happened to the french in Italy. The troops of the king of Sardinia were intrenched in the paſs of Affiito; and though their breaſtworks were eighteen feet high, defended with paliſades and cannon, they were attacked by the french, under the count de Belleiſle, whom the piedmonteſe had nothing to do but to kill for two hours together.

It is now time to give an account of the expedition of Charles Edward, ſon of the pretender, whoſe firſt ſucceſſes were as ſurpriſing as the cataſtrophe was fatal. That grandſon of James II. having formed the deſign of dethroning George II. embarked in 1745, on board a privateer, with ſeven officers, twelve hundred ſtand of arms, and a ſmall ſum of money. Some of the heads of clans among the ſcotch highlanders received him, and declared in his favour; and he very ſoon had three thouſand men under his command. His courage, his example, the fatigues which he underwent at their head, and the life which he led equally hard with that of his followers, inſpired them with a degree of enthuſiaſm. George II. was abſent from the kingdom, and almoſt the whole troops of the nation were ſerving abroad. Charles Edward having made himſelf maſter of Perth, marched quickly to Edinburgh, where he cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed

proclaimed regent for his father James. A reward of thirty thouſand pounds was promiſed to whoever would bring him dead or alive. CHAP. LXIX.

Meanwhile general Cope having advanced with more than four thouſand men, prince Charles made haſte to engage them; when his highlanders, who, though inferior in number, and ignorant of diſcipline, after having fired their pieces, ruſhed upon the enemy ſword in hand, and gained a complete victory. The king made haſte to return to England; and, dreading a revolution, recalled his troops from the continent. But the aſſiſtance which Charles received from France was inſufficient. He advanced into the heart of England without receiving any conſiderable acceſſion of force, or being joined by any perſon of diſtinction. Diſappointed in his hopes of being joined by the majority of the people, it was reſolved, in a council of war, to march back to Scotland: and their retreat was effected without loſing above fifty men.

In fine, though twice a conqueror, he was obliged to retire before the duke of Cumberland, who purſued him to Inverneſs; and a battle was fought at Culloden the 16th of April, when Charles was defeated, and his whole army routed. A. D. 1746. Reduced to the neceſſity of concealing himſelf in moraſſes, caverns, and deſerted iſlands, he was expoſed to the greateſt dangers, ſuffered every imaginable horror, till he at laſt he arrived at a part of

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the coaſt where he was waited for by two french frigates, and eſcaped from his enemies. Some ſcotch peers, and a number of other people, were executed. Let us now pauſe for a time, that we may take a view of the naval tranſactions ſince the commencement of the war. We ſhall only point out the moſt remarkable enterpriſes.

Commodore Anſon, in 1741, after having burned the town of Paita, on the coaſt of Peru, propoſed to take the galleon, which was ſent annually from Mexico to Manilla, in the philippine iſlands. He got before it by way of the Pacific Ocean; and having only one ſhip of his ſquadron, he went to refit at China; and having diſcovered the galleon, attacked and took her in the year 1743. With this rich booty he returned to England by the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived in triumph at the capital in 1744, loaded with treaſure; which is ſaid to have amounted to 400,000l. ſterling. His voyage round the world laſted three years and a half.

In the year 1745, commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the french the important fortreſs Louiſbourg, in the iſland of Cape Breton. Some veſſels richly loaded arrived in that port, without ſuſpecting any danger, and fell into the hands of the engliſh.

Anſon, having been made a vice admiral, defeated the french fleet off Cape Finiſterre. Admiral Hawke, the ſame year, 1747, gained a ſecond

cond victory; and the french navy was reduced to a ſingle ſhip. CHAP. LXIX.

Theſe naval victories, and the ſailing of admiral Boſcawen with a ſtrong ſquadron, and a conſiderable body of land forces, for the Eaſt Indies, where it was conjectured he would not only recover Madraſs, which had been taken by the french, but reduce Pondicherry, diſpoſed Lewis XV. ſeriouſly to think of peace, and even to liſten to moderate terms, notwithſtanding the great ſuperiority of his arms in the low countries. He accordingly made advances towards an accommodation both at London and the Hague; and all parties being heartily tired of the war, the preliminaries of peace were ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle, the 30th of April, and the definitive treaty the 18th of October. A. D. 1748.

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AS the Affairs of Europe, from the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, to the Peace of Verſailles, in 1763.

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THE treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was, properly ſpeaking, but a temporary truce. Though the war between England and France was huſhed up in Europe, yet in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, it ſtill went forward with undiminiſhed vehemence. The french employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine; and had laid a deep ſcheme for poſſeſſing themſelves of the britiſh back ſettlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the engliſh and the native indians; in which caſe, their colonies muſt have been reduced to a narrow ſlip on the coaſts. Fortunately for Great Britain, they diſcloſed their intention, by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

But not in America alone, but alſo in Aſia, the ſeeds of a new war were preparing to be expanded on the coaſts of Malabar. The engliſh, the french, and ſeveral other powers of Europe, had built forts with the original conſent of the mogul, who was then emperor of the whole tract. There war between the engliſh and french firſt began by

by either power ſiding with two contending princes of the country; and from being ſecondaries in the quarrel, at length became principals. Thus the war was kindled up in every part of the world. Moſt other national conteſts have ariſen from ſome principal cauſe; but this war ſeems to have been produced by the concurrence of ſeveral; or it may be more properly conſidered as the continuance of the late war, which was never effectually extinguiſhed by the wretched and defective treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. CHAP. LXX.

The engliſh began a very vigorous exertion in defence of her colonies. Four operations were undertaken in America at the ſame time. Of theſe, one was commanded by colonel Monckton, who had orders to drive the french from their encroachments upon the province of Nova Scotia. The ſecond, more to the ſouth, was directed againſt Crown Point, under the command of general Johnſon. The third, under the conduct of general Shirley, was deſtined to Niagara, to ſecure the forts on that river; and the fourth, was farther ſouthward ſtill, againſt Fort du Queſne, under general Braddock. A. D. 1755.

In theſe expeditions Monckton was ſucceſsful. Johnſon was alſo victorious, though he had failed in taking the fort againſt which he was ſent. Shirley was thought to have loſt the ſeaſon for operation by delay. Braddock was vigorous and active;

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but was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the french and indians.

The general indignation that was raiſed by the want of ſucceſs in America, drove the engliſh into a ſpirit of retaliation by ſea, where they were ſure of ſucceſs. Admiral Boſcawen was ordered, with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the Banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with, and took two french men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle. Orders were now iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe, as well as in America; and that all the french ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopt, and brought into britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above three hundred of the richeſt french merchant ſhips, and above eight thouſand of their beſt ſailors, were brought into engliſh ports.

A. D. 1755.

While the flames of war were thus breaking out between France and England, the ſouthern parts of Europe were viſited by a more dreadful calamity than even war itſelf. A violent earthquake, which ſhook all Spain, Portugal, and the neighbouring countries, threw the inhabitants into the utmoſt conſternation, and laid the city of Liſbon in ruins. About ten thouſand perſons loſt their lives; and many of the ſurvivors, deprived of their habitations, and altogether deſtitute

deſtitute of means of ſubſiſtence, were obliged to take up their abode in open fields. The britiſh parliament, though preſſed with new demands, generouſly voted one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling for the uſe of the unhappy ſufferers. This is one of thoſe inſtances on which England juſtly may pride herſelf. CHAP. LXX.

Meanwhile the people of Great Britain were ſeized with a ſhameful panic, notwithſtanding their naval ſuperiority, at the rumour of a french invaſion. This panic was in ſome meaſure diſſipated, by the arrival of a large body of hanoverians and heſſians, to the number of ten thouſand men, for the protection of the kingdom. But new jealouſies and fears took place as ſoon as the alarm of the invaſion ſubſided; the foreign troops being repreſented, by the diſſatisfied part of the nation, as the moſt dangerous enemies of the ſtate. The attention of the public was, however, called off from that ſubject, for a time, by the news of the invaſion of Minorca, by a french armament under the duke of Richelieu.

On the firſt intelligence of this unexpected attack, the engliſh government ſent out admiral Byng with ten ſhips of the line, with orders to relieve Minorca at any rate. When Byng arrived at that iſland, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee the engliſh colours ſtill flying in the caſtle of St. Philip: but notwithſtanding this animating circumſtance, he hardly made any attempt for its

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relief. In a word, Byng, who had a ſquadron, at leaſt equal to that of the french, was baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral, Galiſſoniere; and Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney, after a ſiege of nine weeks. The loſs of this iſland was more ſhameful, than detrimental to England; but the public cry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot at Portſmouth, for cowardice.

A. D. 1756.

In the mean time the french, after making themſelves maſters of Minorca, were willing to ſecond their blow; by an attack upon a country, which they were ſenſible the king of England valued ſtill more. Being convinced that they could not hold their acquiſition againſt ſuch a ſuperiority as the engliſh were poſſeſſed of at ſea, they made no ſcruple of declaring, that they would revenge all the injuries which they ſhould ſuſtain in their colonies, upon the king of Great Britain's territories in Germany; a threat which they ſecretly believed, would ſoon compel the engliſh miniſtry to accept of ſuch terms as they ſhould pleaſe to offer; or in caſe of perſeverance, they knew that it would divide the engliſh forces, and lead them to a country where ſhe muſt be manifeſtly inferior. In theſe hopes they were not much diſappointed. The court of London, eager to procure the ſecurity of Hanover, entered into a very expenſive treaty with the court of Ruſſia; by which it was ſtipulated, that a body of

of fifty thouſand ruſſians ſhould be ready to act in the engliſh ſervice, in caſe Hanover ſhould be invaded. CHAP. LXX.

This treaty with the ruſſians ſoon appeared as nugatory as it was expenſive. The king of Pruſſia, whoſe talents were well known even at that time, but who has ſince become ſo famous, took the firſt opportunity to declare, that he would not ſuffer any foreign forces to enter the empire, either as auxiliaries, or as principals. This conſummate politician had, it ſeems, been already appriſed of a ſecret negociation between the ruſſians and the auſtrians, by which the latter were to enter the empire, and ſtrip him of his late conqueſt of Sileſia.

The king of Great Britain, alarmed at this ſtrong declaration, yet pleaſed with its profeſſed object, the excluſion of foreign troops, concluded, on that principle, a treaty with the king of Pruſſia; not doubting but he ſhould ſtill be able to preſerve a good underſtanding with the courts of Vienna and Peterſburgh. But the houſe of Auſtria, forgetting its jealouſy of the houſe of Bourbon, in its animoſity againſt the pruſſian monarch, not only entered into a league with France, along with Ruſſia and Sweden, but gave up its barrier in the Netherlands, which had been acquired by torrents of britiſh blood, and millions of britiſh treaſure, in order to cement more cloſely this unnatural confederacy. Theſe new and ſingular

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alliances, neceſſarily drew tighter the bands of union between George II. and his nephew, the king of Pruſſia.

The preparations for war were at firſt begun on the ſide of Auſtria, who had engaged the elector of Saxony in the general diſpute. Great armaments were, therefore, put on foot in Moravia and Bohemia, while the elector of Saxony, under pretence of military parade, drew together about ſix thouſand men, which were poſted in a ſtrong ſituation at Perna. But the intent of theſe preparations was ſoon perceived by the vigilant king of Pruſſia, who reſolved to carry the war into the enemies' country, rather than to wait for it in his own.

He accordingly entered Saxony, with a large army; and in the uſual ſtrain of civility, demanded, from the elector, a paſſage through his dominions, which he well knew the poſſeſſor was not able to refuſe. In the mean time he diſguiſed his ſuſpicions of the elector's having entered into a ſecret treaty with his enemies; and profeſſed himſelf extremely pleaſed with that potentate's promiſes of obſerving a ſtrict neutrality. But to carry on the deceit ſtill farther, he entreated, that as the elector's troops were totally unneceſſary, in conſequence of his pacific diſpoſition, that he would diſband them for the preſent, as he could not poſſibly have any occaſion for their ſervices.

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This propoſal the elector rejected with diſdain; and the king, who probably made it to be refuſed, reſolved to turn the occurrence to his own advantage. Such was the ſituation of the ſaxon camp, that though a ſmall army could defend it againſt the moſt numerous forces, yet the ſame difficulty attended the quitting it, that impeded the enemy from ſtorming it. Of this circumſtance his pruſſian majeſty took advantage; and by blocking up every avenue of egreſs, he cut off the proviſions of the ſaxon army, and the whole body was ſoon obliged to capitulate. CHAP. LXX. A. D. 1756.

The king of Pruſſia thus launched into a tumult of war with all the moſt potent ſtates of Europe againſt him, and England only in alliance; went forward with a vigour that exceeded what hiſtory can ſhew, and that may be incredible to poſterity. King only of a very ſmall territory, and aſſiſted by an ally, whoſe ſituation was too remote to give any conſiderable ſuccours, attacked and ſurrounded by his enemies, he ſtill oppoſed them on every ſide; invades Bohemia; defeats the auſtrian general, marechal Brown, at Lowoſitz; retreats; begins his ſecond campaign near Prague; is upon the point of taking that city, but by a temerity, inſpired by ſucceſs, ſuffers a defeat. Still, however, unconquered, "Fortune," ſaid he, "has turned her back "upon me this day—I ought to have expected "it—ſhe is a female, and I am no gallant."— A. D. 1757.

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"Succeſs often occaſions a deſtructive confi-
"dence—another time will do better."—We have inſtances of thouſands who have gained battles; but no general ever, before him, acknowledged his errors, except Cæſar.

What the king ſaid of the inſtability of fortune, ſhortly began to appear; and ſhe ſeemed totally to have turned her back upon him. One diſaſter followed cloſe upon the back of another. The hanoverians, who were joined with him by his treaty with England, had armed in his favour; and commanded by the duke of Cumberland, who appeared, from the beginning, ſenſible of the inſufficiency of his troops to face the enemy, by whom he was greatly out-numbered. He was driven by the duke de Richelieu, the french general, from one part of the country to another; till at length the hanoverian army was obliged to retire towards Stalde; by which means they marched into a country from whence they could neither procure proviſions, nor yet attack the enemy with hopes of ſucceſs. Unable, therefore, by their ſituation to eſcape, or by their ſtrength to advance, they were compelled to ſign a capitulation, by which the whole body laid down their arms, and were diſperſed into different quarters of cantonment. By this remarkable capitulation, which was called the treaty of Cloſter Seven, Hanover was obliged to ſubmit peaceably to the

A. D. 1757.

french

french, who were now determined to turn upon the king of Pruſſia with undivided forces.

The ſituation of this monarch was become deſperate; nor could human foreſight diſcover how he could extricate himſelf from his difficulties. The french forces, now united, invaded his dominions on one ſide, commanded by marechal Broglio. The Ruſſians, who for ſome time had hovered over his dominions, under the conduct of general Apraxin, all at once haſtened onward to overwhelm him, marking their way with ſlaughter and cruelty. A large body of auſtrians entered Sileſia, and penetrating as far as Breſlaw, turned to the ſtrong fortreſs of Schweidnitz; which, after an obſtinate defence, they obliged to ſurrender. Another army of the ſame power entered Luſatia, made themſelves maſter of Gittau, and preſſing forwards, laid Berlin under contribution. On another quarter, a body of twenty-two thouſand ſwedes pierced into pruſſian Pomeronia, took the towns Anclam and Demmein, and exacted tribute from the whole country.

In this multitude of invaders, it was in vain that the king of Pruſſia faced about to every incurſion: though his enemies fled before him, while he purſued one body, another penetrated from behind: and even while he was victorious, his territories were every day diminiſhing. The greateſt part of his dominions was laid under contribution: moſt of the ſtrong cities were taken; and

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and he had no reſources but in the generoſity of the britiſh parliament, and his own extenſive abilities.

The ſuccours of the engliſh could be of very little advantage to him, particularly as the hanoverians were reſtrained by the treaty from acting in his favour. The britiſh miniſtry, however, conſcious that ſomething ſhould be done, planned an enterpiſe againſt the coaſts of France; which, by cauſing a diverſion in that part of the kingdom, would draw off the attention of the enemy from Pruſſia, and give that monarch time to breathe. The deſcent was to be made at Rochfort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions of this expedition. It failed the 8th of September; and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October, without the general making any attempt to land on the coaſt of France,

A. D. 1757.

The Eaſt was the quarter on which ſucceſs firſt began to dawn upon the britiſh arms. Colonel Clive defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces, Suraja Dowla, who was in the french intereſt, was a few days after his being defeated, taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the pre-

ſent amazing extent of riches and territory, which the engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies. CHAP. LXX.

In the mean time, while conqueſt ſhined upon the engliſh from the Eaſt, it was ſtill more ſplendid in the weſtern world. But ſome alterations in the miniſtry led to thoſe ſucceſſes which had been long wiſhed for by the nation, and were at length obtained. At the head of the newly introduced party, was the celebrated William Pitt,* from whoſe vigour the people formed very great expectations; and they were not deceived. A. D. 1758.

The enterpriſing ſpirit of the miniſter ſeemed to communicate itſelf to all ranks and claſſes of men, but more eſpecially to the officers of the army and navy. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt reduced and demoliſhed Louiſburg, in North America, which had been reſtored to the french by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the britiſh trade, and took five or ſix ſhips of the line: Frontenac, and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the engliſh: acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which they received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of about three hundred engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh, from the coaſt of France.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of Goree on the coaſt of Africa, by the marines under commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and

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all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them againſt the french iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of French Canada. The command was given to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior forces by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the french had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the french threw up to prevent a deſcent of the engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties, gained the heights of Abraham near Quebec. Montcalm was no ſooner appriſed that the engliſh had gained theſe heights, which he had confidently deemed inacceſſible, than he reſolved to hazard a battle: a furious encounter quickly began. This was one of the moſt deſperate engagements during this war. The french general was ſlain; the ſecond in command ſhared the ſame fate. Wolfe, who was advancing at the head of the grenadiers, received a ſhot in the wriſt, but wrapt a handkerchief round his arm, and encouraged his men to advance, without diſcovering the leaſt diſcompoſure. He next received a ſhot in the groin, which he had concealed. Even after the fatal bullet had pierced his breaſt, he ſuffered himſelf unwillingly to be

carried

carried behind the ranks. Under all the agonies of approaching diſſolution, his anxiety for the fortune of the field continued; and when told that the french army was totally routed and fled on all ſides, "Then," ſaid he, "I die happy;" and immediately expired in a kind of patriotic tranſport, which ſeemed to ſhed over his darkening countenance a gleam of ſatisfaction and triumph. The ſurrender of Quebec was the conſequence of this victory; and with it ſoon after the total ceſſion of all Canada.

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General Amherſt, who was the firſt engliſh general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe, on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. Amherſt executed his commiſſion with ſo much prudence and activity, that the whole province was ſoon reduced; and is now the principal ſettlement which the engliſh poſſeſs in North America.

Theſe ſucceſſes in India and America were great, though atchieved by no very expenſive efforts: on the contrary, the efforts of the engliſh, made in Europe, and the operations of their great ally, the king of Pruſſia, were aſtoniſhing, yet produced no ſignal advantages. A defenſive war in Germany was all that could be expected; and that he maintained againſt the united powers of the continent with unexampled bravery. We left

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the french and imperialiſts triumphing in repeated ſucceſſes, and enjoying the fruits of an advantageous ſummer campaign. But as if ſummer were not ſufficient for the horrors of war, they now reſolved to exert them even amidſt the rigours of winter; and in the depth of that ſeaſon, ſet down and formed the ſiege of Leipſic. The capture of that city would have been fatal to the intereſts of the king; and by one of thoſe rapid marches, for which he was remarkable, he ſeemed, with his army, unexpectedly to riſe before the town. Such was the terror of his arms, that even vanquiſhed as he ſeemed, the french, though ſuperior in numbers, raiſed the ſiege, and retreated. He was reſolved to purſue; and at length overtook them them at a village called Roſbach, where he gained a complete victory; and night alone ſaved their whole army from deſtruction.

In the meantime, the auſtrians, in another part of the empire, were victorious, and had taken the prince of Bevern, the king of Pruſſia's generaliſſimo, priſoner; the king having juſt fought a battle, again undertook a dreadful march of two hundred miles in the depth of winter, and came up with the auſtrian army near Breſslaw. He there diſpoſed his forces with his uſual celerity and judgment, and obtained another bloody victory; and took no leſs than fifteen thouſand priſoners. Breſlaw, with a gar-

riſon of ten thouſand men, ſurrendered ſoon after. CHAP. LXX.
Theſe ſucceſſes diſpirited the enemy, and gave his diſtreſſed hanoverian allies freſh hopes of being able to expel the french troops from their territories.

Soon after the capitulation of Cloſter Seven had been ſigned between the duke of Cumberland and the duke of Richelieu, both ſides began to complain that the treaty was not ſtrictly obſerved. The hanoverians exclaimed againſt the rapacity of the french general, and the brutality of his ſoldiers. The french retorted the charge againſt them; accuſed them of inſolence and inſurrection, and reſolved to bring them ſtrictly to the terms of their agreement, ſenſible of their own ſuperiority.. The hanoverians only wanted a pretext to take arms, and a general to head them.

Neither were long wanting:—the oppreſſion of the tax-gatherers, whom the french had appointed, were conſidered as ſo ſevere, that the army once more roſe to vindicate their freedom, while Ferdinand, prince of Brunſwick, put himſelf at their head.

Nothing could be more fortunate for the intereſt of the king of Pruſſia than this ſudden inſurrection of the hanoverian forces. From this time he began to oppoſe the enemy on more equal terms: he faced them on every ſide; often victorious; ſometimes repulſed; but ever for-

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midable. Never was the art of war carried to ſuch a pitch as by him; and, it muſt be added, its horrors alſo. In this war Europe ſaw, with aſtoniſhment, campaigns carried on in the midſt of winter; great and bloody battles fought, yet producing no viſible advantage to the victors. At no time, ſince the days of heroiſm, were ſuch numbers deſtroyed, ſo many towns taken, ſo many ſkirmiſhes fought, ſuch ſtratagems practiſed, or ſuch intrepidity diſcovered. Armies were, by the German diſcipline, conſidered as compoſing one great machine, directed by one commander, and animated by a ſingle will. From the commentary of theſe campaigns, ſucceeding generals will take their leſſons of devaſtation, and improve upon the arts of encreaſing human calamity.

England was at this time happily retired from the miſeries which oppreſſed the reſt of Europe; yet from her naturally military ardour, ſhe ſeemed deſirous of ſharing theſe dangers of which ſhe was only a ſpectator. This paſſion for ſharing in a continental war, was not leſs pleaſing to the king of England, from his native attachments, than from a deſire of revenge upon the plunderers of his country. As ſoon, therefore, as it was known that prince Ferdinand had put himſelf at the head of the hanoverian army, his britannic Majeſty, in a ſpeech to his parliament, obſerved, that the late ſucceſs of his ally in Germany, had

given an happy turn to his affairs, which it would be neceſſary to improve. The commons concurred in his ſentiments, and liberally granted ſupplies both for the ſervice of the king of Pruſſia, and for enabling the army formed in Hanover to act vigorouſly in conjunction with him. CHAP. LXX.

From ſending money over into Germany, the nation began to extend their benefits; and it was ſoon conſidered that men would be a more grateful ſupply. Mr. Pitt, who had at firſt come into popularity and power, by oppoſing ſuch meaſures, was now prevailed on to enter into them with even greater ardour than any of his predeceſſors. The hopes of putting a ſpeedy end to the war by vigorous meaſures, the connexions with which he was obliged to co-operate, and perhaps the pleaſure he found in pleaſing the king, altogether incited him eagerly to puſh forward a continental war. However, he only coincided with the general inclinations of the people at this time, who, allured by the noble efforts of their only ally, were unwilling to ſee him fall a ſacrifice to the united ambition of his enemies.

In order to indulge this general inclination of aſſiſting the king of Pruſſia, the duke of Marlborough was ſent into Germany with a ſmall body of britiſh forces, to join with prince Ferdinand, whoſe activity againſt the french began to be crowned with ſucceſs. After ſome ſmall advantages gained by the allied army at Crevelt, the

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duke of Marlborough dying, his command devolved upon lord George Sackville, whoſe ſecond was the marquis of Granby, a man univerſally adored by the engliſh army. Unfortunately a miſunderſtanding aroſe between lord George and the commander in chief, which ſoon had an occaſion of being diſplayed at the battle of Minden, which was fought ſhortly after. The cauſe of this ſecret diſguſt on both ſides is not clearly known; it is thought that the inquiſitive ſpirit of the engliſh general was by no means agreeable to his ſuperior in command, who hoped to reap ſome pecuniary advantages the other was unwilling to permit. Be this as it will, both armies advancing near the town of Minden, the french began the attack with great vigour. The britiſh infantry, poſted in the centre, ſuſtained the principal ſhock of the battle, and broke every body of horſe and foot that advanced againſt them; while the heſſian and hanoverian cavalry, poſted on the left, baffled all the attempts of the enemy, and puſhed them to the neceſſity of ſeeking ſafety in flight. At this inſtant prince Ferdinand ſent orders to lord George Sackville, to advance to the charge with the britiſh and hanoverian horſe; and if theſe orders had been obeyed, the battle of Minden would probably have been as memorable as that of Blenheim. The french army would have been utterly deſtroyed, or totally routed; and driven out of Germany. But whatever was the cauſe,

cauſe, whether the orders were not ſufficiently pre- CHAP. LXX.
ciſe, were miſrepreſented, or imperfectly under-
ſtood, the britiſh cavalry did not arrive in time to have any ſhare in the action; ſo that laurels were the only advantage reaped from the field of battle.

After theſe victories, which were greatly magnified in England, it was ſuppoſed that one reinforcement more of britiſh troops would terminate the war in favour of the allies; and a reinforcement was quickly ſent. The britiſh army in Germany now, therefore, amounted to above thirty thouſand men; and the whole nation was flushed with the hopes of immediate conqueſt. But theſe hopes ſoon vaniſhed in finding victory and defeat ſucceſſively following each other. The allies were worſted at Corbach 1760, but retrieved their honour at Ermſdorf. A victory at Warburg followed ſhortly after, and another at Zierenburg; but then they ſuffered a defeat at Compen; after which both ſides went into winter quarters.

The deſperate ſtate of the king of Pruſſia's affairs now required the moſt vigorous exertions. The ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg. Till then he had entertained too mean an opinion of the ruſſians; but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had; they defeated him near Frankfort, where he loſt 20,000 of his beſt men. He became now the tennis ball of

CHAP. LXX.

fortune; ſucceeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. At Landſhut, the imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, in which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received, ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. However, towards the latter end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun, the imperial general, was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him ten thouſand of his beſt troops.

During theſe important tranſactions on the continent, the efforts of England, over every part of the globe, were amazing. The king of Pruſſia received a ſubſidy; a large body of engliſh forces commanded the extenſive peninſula of India; another army of twenty thouſand men confirmed their conqueſt in North America; there were thirty thouſand men employed in Germany; and ſeveral other bodies diſperſed in the different garriſons in the various parts of the world: but all theſe were nothing to the force maintained at ſea, which carried command wherever it came, and had totally annihilated the french power on that element. The courage and the conduct of the

the engliſh admirals had ſurpaſſed whatever had been read of in hiſtory; neither ſuperior force or number, nor even the terrors of the tempeſt, could intimidate them. Admiral Hawke gained a complete victory over an equal number of french ſhips, on the coaſt of Bretagne, in Quiberon Bay, in the midſt of a tempeſt, during the darkneſs of the night, and, what a ſeaman fears ſtill more, upon a rocky ſhore. CHAP. LXX.

In the midſt of theſe glorious ſucceſſes died George II. in the ſeventy-ſeventh year of his age, and thirty-fourth of his reign. He was ſuddenly taken ill on the twenty-fifth of October, and expired almoſt inſtantly. His character is by no means complicated: violent in his temper, but humane and candid in his diſpoſition; he conciliated the affection, if not the eſteem of thoſe who were moſt about his perſon. His partial attachment to german politics, made the early part of his reign unpopular; but the bold ſpirit with which he reſented the inſults offered to his crown, and the brilliant conqueſts with which the latter years of his reign were adorned, have endeared his memory to the engliſh nation. A.D. 1760.

His Britannic Majeſty was ſucceeded in his regal and electoral dominions, by his grandſon, George III. a prince of an amiable diſpoſition, and the moſt unblemiſhed manners; whoſe firſt ſpeech to his parliament excited the higheſt hopes of a patriotic reign. "Born and educated

"in

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"in this country, I glory," ſaid he, "in the "name of Briton." The firſt act of his reign was to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of war—Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon: as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the french in the Weſt Indies ſtill continued; and, in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, Grenadellas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the britiſh arms, with inconceivable rapidity.

A. D. 1762.

By this time the famous family compact among all the branches of the Burbon family had been concluded, and it was found neceſſary to declare war againſt Spain; who having been hitherto no principals in the quarrel, had ſcandalouſly abuſed their neutrality, in favour of the french. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pocock, having the earl of Albermale on board to command the land forces: and the vitals of the ſpaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his Catholic Majeſty held in the Weſt Indies.

The

The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the ſpaniards, were ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla, in the Eaſt Indies, by general Draper, and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three million of dollars. To counteract theſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the french and ſpaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with, and invade Portugal, which had been always under the protection of the britiſh arms: his Britannic Majeſty was therefore obliged to ſend armaments both by ſea and land; and this force found no great difficulty in checking the progreſs of the ſpaniards. In this ſervice general Burgoyne bore a diſtinguiſhed part. CHAP. LXX.

Nor did the attention of Great Britain to the ſafety of Portugal, diminiſh her exertions or her ſucceſs in Germany, where the french reſolved to make the moſt powerful efforts, while the ſpaniards, in order to divide her ſtrength, entered the dominions of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty. Nevertheleſs, prince Ferdinand baffled all the attempts of the french; obliged them to abandon Gottingen, the only place which they poſſeſſed in the dominions of his Britannic Majeſty, and which they had fortified at great expence; he gained ſeveral advantages over them, particularly at Graebenſtein, Homburg, and Melſungen; three

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three actions in which the britiſh troops, under the marquis of Granby, acquired ſignal honour.

While prince Ferdinand was thus exerting himſelf with a degree of vigour and ſucceſs, the fortune of the king of Pruſſia wore a variety of appearances, in conſequence of certain great ſingular revolutions in the north. At the cl e of the laſt campaign, the dominions of his pruſſian majeſty, whoſe forces were much cut down, lay entirely at the mercy of his enemies, who were now in a ſituation to begin their operations more early than formerly, as well as to ſuſtain them with more vigour and concert. A complete victory, (an event by no means probable) did not ſeem ſufficient to ſave him from ruin, when the tremendous ſtorm, ready to burſt upon his head from different quarters, was quickly diſperſed by one of thoſe ſudden and extraordinary changes in human affairs, which often decide the fate of nations, outſtrip all foreſight, and confound the reaſonings of the wiſeſt politicians.

Elizabeth, empreſs of Ruſſia, ſecond daughter of Peter the Great, having finiſhed her worldly career in 1762, was ſucceeded by her nephew, the duke of Holſtein, in the name of Peter III. This prince mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his pruſſian majeſty's virtues, and to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles

principles and practice he ſeemed to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia, but it is ſaid, he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy: his memory has been likewiſe accuſed of certain infidelities, which had enraged his conſort, Catherine. Be this as it may, it is certain that an univerſal conſpiracy was formed againſt him, and that he ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia, was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who now reigns by the title of Catherine II. This princeſs declared to the pruſſian ambaſſador, that ſhe was reſolved to obſerve inviolable, in all points, the perpetual peace concluded under the preſent reign. CHAP. LXX.

The king of Pruſſia did not fail to profit by this great and unexpected revolution in his favour. He gained ſeveral advantages over the imperialiſts; and count Daun was obliged to abandon all his ſtrong poſts in Sileſia, and fall back into Bohemia.

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The britiſh empire had now attained an extent that aſtoniſhed the world, and which far exceeded that of ancient Rome. Every where victorious by land and ſea in both hemiſpheres, and in all quarters of the globe, it ſeemed only neceſſary for England to determine what ſhare of her conqueſts ſhe choſe to retain, and what terms ſhe would impoſe upon the houſe of bourbon, as her german allies were happily in a condition to make terms for themſelves. It was therefore ſincerely hoped by the greateſt part of the engliſh nation, that the glorious opportunity of finally humbling this haughty family was at length arrived; and that the family compact, lately ſo alarming to Great Britain, would terminate in the confuſion of her ambitious enemies. In the midſt of our ſplendid conqueſts, however, a negociation with the bourbon courts was begun by the miniſters of his Britannic Majeſty; and the definitive treaty of peace was ſigned at Paris in the beginning of the year.

A. D. 1763. Feb. 10.

The king of Pruſſia, finding himſelf deſerted by his grand ally, concluded a treaty of peace with the empreſs queen, at Hubertſburg; the ſubſtance of which was, that a mutual reſtitution of conqueſts ſhould take place, and that both parties ſhould be put in the ſame ſituation as at the commencement of hoſtilitſes. Thus was terminated, happily for the preſent repoſe of mankind, but prematurely

prematurely for the glory of Great Britain, and without a proper attention to her intereſts, the moſt active, ſplendid, and univerſal war that ever divided the human race. CHAP. LXX.

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